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THE MICROCOSM OF LONDON

OR

LONDON IN MINIATURE

VOL. I

THE MICROCOSM OF LONDON

OR

LONDON IN MINIATURE

[Ackermann, Rudolph]

VOLUME I

WITH THIRTY-TWO ILLUSTRATIONS BY PUGIN AND ROWLANDSON

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NOTE

THIS Issue is founded on the original Edition published by Rudolph Ackermann.

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VOL. I.

THE

MICROCOSM

of

LONDON

THIS WORK

Already honoured by HIS *Approbation*

Is most Humbly Dedicated by Permission

To His Royal Highness

THE

Prince of Wales

BY HIS GRATEFUL, AND OBEDIENT SERVANT,

R. ACKERMANN.

Tho.s Tomkins Script. *Robt. Ashby Sculp.t*

The great objection that men fond of the fine arts have hitherto made to engravings on architectural subjects, has been, that the buildings and figures have almost invariably been designed by the same artists. In consequence of this, the figures have been generally neglected, or are of a very inferior cast, and totally unconnected with the other part of the print; so that we may sometimes see men and women in English dresses delineated in an English view of an Italian palace, and Spanish grandees in long cloaks, and ladies in veils, seated in one of our own cathedrals.

> The dress, we know, is neither new, nor rare,
> But how the d——l came it there?

To remove these glaring incongruities from this publication, a strict attention has been paid, not only to the country of the figures introduced in the different buildings, but to the general air and peculiar carriage, habits, &c. of such characters as are likely to make up the majority in particular places.

The architectural part of the subjects that are contained in this work, will be delineated, with the utmost precision and care, by Mr. Pugin, whose uncommon accuracy and elegant taste have been displayed in his former productions. With respect to the figures, they are from the pencil of Mr. Rowlandson, with whose professional talents the public are already so well acquainted, that it is not necessary to expatiate on them here. As the following list comprises almost every variety of character that is found in this great metropolis, there will be ample scope for the exertion

of his abilities; and it will be found, that his powers are not confined to the ludicrous, but that he can vary with his subject, and, whenever it is necessary, descend

From grave to gay, from lively to severe.

As six numbers will form a volume, the whole will be comprised in four handsome volumes, with each of which will be given a beautiful frontispiece; so that each volume will contain twenty-five highly finished plates, correctly designed and coloured from nature, with near two hundred pages of letter-press.

As every possible attention will be paid to executing the different parts in a superior style, and rendering this work worthy of approbation and encouragement, the publisher is not afraid of obtaining it.

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N.B. The binder is requested to note the above as furnishing him with directions for the arrangement of the plates.

THE MICROCOSM OF LONDON

OR

LONDON IN MINIATURE

ROYAL ACADEMY

THE state of society in this country, and indeed of almost all Europe besides, was such, that, from the time of William the Norman to the accession of Charles I. the sovereigns of England had no sort of conception of the fine arts. Deeds of martial hardihood and romantic heroism, fraught with a sort of spirit of chivalry, engrossed the attention, and attracted the admiration, of both the monarch and his subjects. The arts were of too quiet a description to be heard amid the clangour of arms and perpetual din of warfare, which engrossed the whole attention of the monarch and his courtiers.

They were, however, the principal actors in achievements, which the artists of better times have thought worthy of delineation, without at all expecting that their heroic deeds would be thus commemorated, nor does it seem likely that they would have thought any fame or celebrity would be attached to such a record. It was, however, highly honourable to the names of both parties; for while it emblazoned the sovereign or soldier, by recording their heroic actions in that universal language which

men of all nations can read, it created, or at least kept alive, a species of painting, which is universally admitted to be elevated above any other to which the artist can aspire, or the pencil be devoted; for it has been said and admitted by the first authorities, that historical painting should be the leading object of every man who is ambitious of distinguishing himself in the arts. This is the test by which the national character will be tried in future ages, and by which it is now tried by the natives of other countries. This is the great source from whence the rivulets of art flow, and from whence only is to be derived the vigour and character that truly ennoble them. To this is owing the peculiar excellence discoverable in the portraits painted by TITIAN, RAPHAEL, RUBENS, VANDYKE, and many others; and NICOLO POUSSIN alone is a sufficient proof, what consequence and dignity may be introduced into it by the pencil of a man whose views are not confined to narrow limits. Indeed an artist ought always to be in possession of *more* than his subject calls for, or infallibly he will not have what his subject calls for. Much more might be said on this subject, but we have not room to expatiate on it.

Previous to the institution of a Royal Academy, there was an exhibition at the Lyceum in the Strand. It was denominated THE SOCIETY OF ARTISTS OF GREAT BRITAIN; and the profits were to be applied to the relief of distressed artists, their widows and children. In this place were exhibited some very fine productions by Mortimer and other of our most celebrated painters.

The princes of the house of Hanover had many virtues of a description that adorn and dignify human nature. George II. was a gentleman of high honour and undeviating integrity; but

he possessed no portion of taste for the fine arts, the professors of which were very coldly considered during his reign.

The accession of his present majesty displayed a very different scene, and those who had talents found now a sovereign who had taste to discern and appreciate them, and sought every opportunity of affording them countenance and protection.

In the year 1774, old Somerset Place was purchased of the crown, and an act of parliament passed for embanking the river Thames before Somerset House, and for building upon its scite various public offices, &c. The part of the building appropriated to the artists, is the object of our present enquiry.

The room on the ground-floor is allotted to models of statues, plans, elevations, and drawings.

The coved ceiling of the library was painted by Sir Joshua Reynolds and Cipriani. The center is by Sir Joshua, and represents the Theory of the Art, under the form of an elegant and majestic female, seated on the clouds and looking upwards: she holds in one hand a compass, in the other a label, on which is written,

Theory is the knowledge of what is truly nature.

The four compartments in the coves of the ceiling are by Cipriani, and represent Nature, History, Allegory, and Fable. These are well imagined, and sufficiently explain themselves.

The adjoining room, being originally appropriated to models and casts from the antique, of which this society has a most valuable and curious collection, is plain and unornamented.

The council room is more richly decorated; the stucco is in a good taste, and in the center compartment of the ceiling are

five pictures painted by Mr. West. The center picture represents the Graces unveiling Nature; the others display the four elements from which the imitative arts collect their objects, under the description of female figures, attended by genii, with Fire, Water, Earth, and Air, exhibited under different forms and modifications. The large oval pictures which adorn the two extremities of the ceiling, are from the pencil of Angelica Kauffman, and represent Invention, Composition, Design, and Colouring. Besides these nine large pictures, there are in the angles, or ospandrells in the center, four coloured medallions, representing Apelles the painter, Phidias the sculptor, Apollodorus the architect, and Archimedes the mathematician; and round the great circle of the center, eight smaller medallions, held up by lions, on which are represented, in *chira-obscuro*, Palladio, Bernini, Michael Angelo, Fiamingo, Raphael, Domenichino, Titian, and Rubens; all of which are painted by Rebecca.

Sir Joshua Reynolds was the first president; and his urbanity of manners, and high rank in the arts, gave him a respectability with the society, which it will not be easy for any of his successors to equal.

It is not proper to pass the name of this great man without some general account of his character:

"His art was nature, and his pictures thought."

He was born heir to the manor of portrait-painting, the soil of which he has so improved, enriched, and fertilized, as to give this hitherto barren spot in the province of art, an importance it was never before thought capable of receiving. At the hour he began to paint he was the leader of his art, and, whatever

improvements were made by his contemporaries, preserved that rank to the last year of his life. He was sometimes praised for excellences which he did not possess, and sometimes censured for errors of which he was not guilty. To analyze his character fairly, it is necessary to consider the state of the arts when he began to paint; and to say a man was superior to the painters who immediately succeeded Hudson, is, with very few exceptions, saying little more than that he was a giant among pigmies. By his fondness for experiments in colours, he frequently used such as vanished before the originals they were designed to commemorate, and many of them the world need not lament. Every succeeding year of his life he improved; and that some of his later pictures have been painted with colours that fled, every man of true taste will regret; at the same time that the mezzotintoes so frequently engraved from them, shew us in shadow, that *such things were.* He did not aim at giving a mere ground-plan of the countenance, but the markings of the mind, the workings of the soul, the leading features which distinguish man from man; by which means he has represented real beings with all the ideal graces of fiction, and united character to individuality. Invention and originality have been said to be the leading excellences of a poet or a painter, and the president has been accused of borrowing from the works of others. Let it be remembered, that the merit does not lie in the originality of any single circumstance, but in the conduct and use of all the branches and particular beauties which enter into each composition. Such appropriation has a right to the praise of invention, and to such praise was Sir Joshua entitled. He frequently united the elegance of the French style with the chastity of the

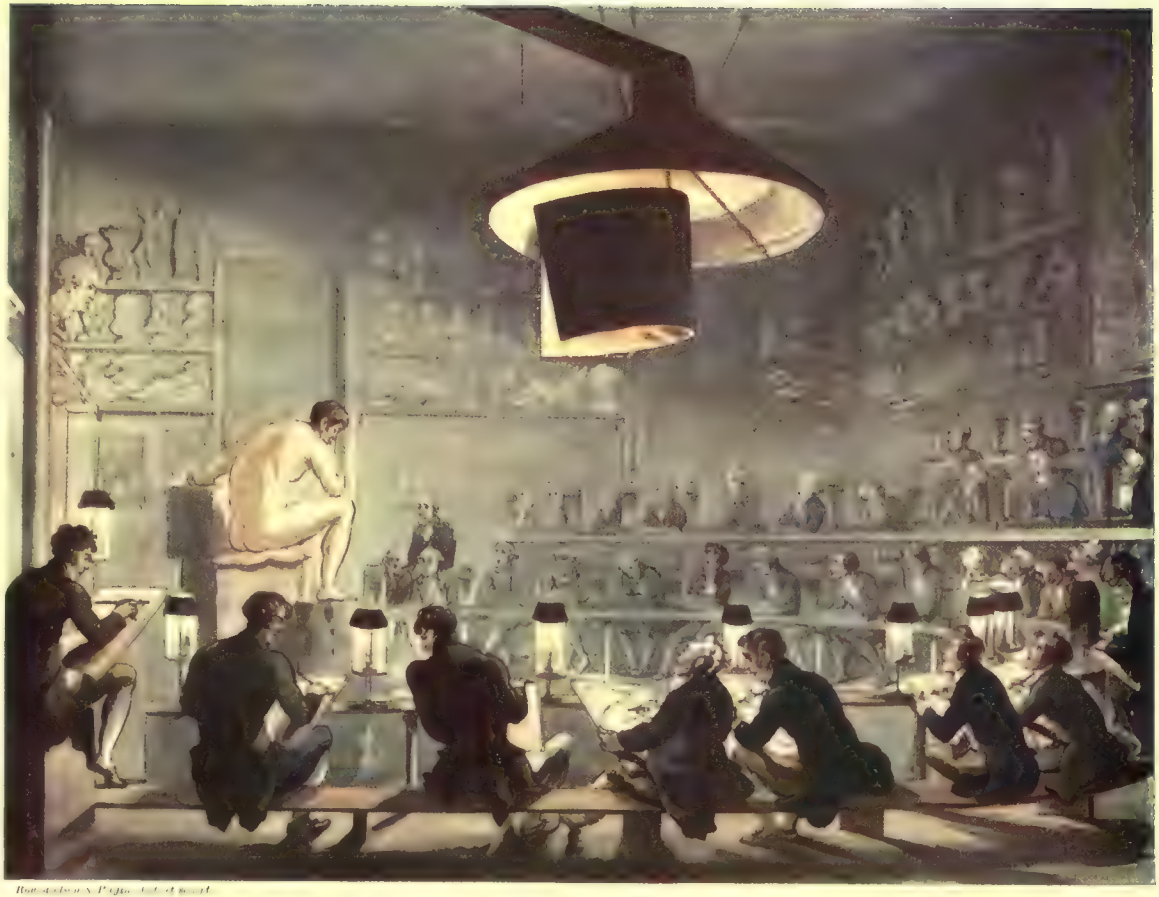
Roman; he imitated the brilliant hues of Rembrandt, but never introduced what was either mean or disgusting; he had the richness of colouring of Rubens without his excess and tumult; and by thus judiciously selecting and skilfully blending the colours of the various masters, he has formed a style wholly his own, on the merit of which other painters have separately about as high claim, as the mason who hewed the stones for Whitehall had to the honours due to Inigo Jones.

Considered in every point of view, he has given a new character to portrait-painting, and his pencil may, without exaggeration, be called creative.

He was succeeded in his situation as president of the Royal Academy by Mr. Benjamin West, the present president.

The stated professors of painting in its different departments, read lectures to the students in their various branches; and as they possess a most capital collection of casts and models from antique statues, &c. they have what may be fairly deemed *a good school for drawing*. A school for colouring they still want; and it has been recommended to them to purchase a collection of pictures, to which the students might resort, and compare their own productions with those of the great masters, whose works have stood the test of ages. The Lectures by Sir Joshua Reynolds are published, and are models of elegant composition as well as scientific taste. Those by Mr. Barry were published a few years ago, and contain much original and useful information, blended with some of this singular painter's peculiarities.

When Mr. Fuseli was elected keeper, Mr. Opie succeeded to the office of professor of painting, but since his death a successor has not been appointed.



DRAWING *from* LIFE *at the* ROYAL ACADEMY,
(SOMERSET HOUSE)

Mr. Sheldon, professor of anatomy, delivers six lectures annually, during the summer season.

Prize medals (of silver), for the best academy figure, are delivered once a year.

Gold medals for historical compositions in painting, sculpture, and designs in architecture, once in two years. The latter are presented to a full assembly, and succeeded by a discourse from the president.

Students have generally during the whole year an opportunity of studying *nature* from well chosen subjects, and of drawing from the antique casts.

Admission to the lectures is by a ticket signed by an academician; they are held on Monday evenings, at eight o'clock, in Somerset Place.

The annual exhibition generally opens in May, and every person admitted pays one shilling; and sixpence for a catalogue, if he wishes to have one.

The first print in this number is,

A VIEW OF THE STUDENTS IN THE ROYAL ACADEMY, AT SOMERSET HOUSE, DRAWING FROM THE LIFE.

The room in which this is done we have already described; and by the manner in which it is arranged, and their errors being pointed out, a number of our young students draw with great correctness. It is devoutly to be wished that their colouring was as meritorious as their drawing; but for colouring they have not yet a good school, though several of the royal academicians have made many attempts to obtain it; but, alas! those attempts have not hitherto been crowned with success.

The print displays a very correct view of the scene it professes to describe, and to those who have been engaged in the business will be so interesting, that they will not be likely to want any illustration of it. To those who have never been either parties or spectators, it is hoped it will prove attractive. We therefore submit it, with all that follow it, to a candid public, with the conviction, that whatever highly merits approbation, is sure to receive it.

THE GREAT ROOM AT THE ROYAL ACADEMY, AT THE TIME OF AN EXHIBITION.

This most spirited drawing is covered with the representation of pictures and figures, in a manner with which it would not be easy to find one with which it could be paralleled; nor would it be easy to find any other artist, except Mr. Rowlandson, who was capable of displaying so much separate manner in the delineations placed on the walls, and such an infinite variety of small figures, contrasted with each other in a way so peculiarly happy, and marked with such appropriate character. The peculiar mode by which different persons shew the earnestness with which they contemplate what they are inspecting, and display an absorbed attention to the object before them, is incomparably delineated; and the whole forms an admirable little picture of that busy scene, in which such crowds are annually engaged in watching the progress of the fine arts as annually exhibited at the Royal Academy.

To point out any number of figures as peculiarly entitled to attention, would be an insult to the spectator, as very many would necessarily be left out of the catalogue, and every man of taste will discern them at a glance.

THE ADMIRALTY

THE Admiralty is a brick building, containing the office and apartments for the lords commissioners of the Admiralty, who superintend the marine department, and is contiguous to the Horse Guards on the north. With respect to the architecture, the principal front facing Parliament-street displays a proof that the noble lord and board who presided at the time it was built, had objects of more consequence than symmetry and proportion to attend to: it was designed and erected by Shipley. The screen in the front (which was designed and erected by Adams) is so peculiarly elegant, that it in a degree redeems the other part from disgrace. On the top of the Admiralty are erected two telegraphs, the inside of which may be seen by proper application to the porter, or person who works the machine.

The lord high admiral is classed as the ninth and last great officer of the crown; and the honour it conferred, and trust it vested, were formerly considered to be so great, that the post was usually given either to some of the king's younger sons, near kinsmen, or one of the chief of the nobility. To the lord high admiral belongeth the cognizance of contracts, pleas, or quarrels made upon the sea, or any part thereof which is not within any county of the realm; for his jurisdiction is wholly confined to the sea. The court is provided for the trial and punishment of all offences committed on the high seas, and is a civil court. Courts-martial in the Admiralty have a judge

advocate appointed to assist them. The present judge of the Admiralty is the Right Honourable Sir William Scott, Knight, LL.D., the salary 2500*l.* The present king's advocate general is Sir John Nicholl, Knight, LL.D.

In King Henry III.'s days, and in the reigns of Edward I. II. and III. Richard II. Henry IV. V. and VI. there were several admirals; for the cautious wisdom of those days would not trust a subject with so great a charge, nor permit any one man to have a certain estate in a post of so great importance. But, nevertheless, in those days there was a great admiral of England.

King Henry VI. in the fourteenth year of his reign, constituted John Holland Duke of Exeter, and Henry Holland his son, admirals of England, Ireland, and Aquitaine for life.

The power of this great officer is described in a statute of Charles II.: it is enacted that he may grant commissions to inferior vice-admirals, or commanders in chief of any squadron of ships, to call and assemble courts-martial, consisting of commanders and captains; and no court-martial, where the pains of death are inflicted, shall consist of less than five captains at least; the admiral's lieutenant to be as to this purpose esteemed as a captain: and in no case when sentence of death shall pass, by virtue of the articles (for regulating and better governing his majesty's navies, ships of war, and forces at sea) aforesaid, or any of them (except in case of mutiny), there shall be execution of such sentence of death, without leave of the lord high admiral, if the offence be committed within the narrow seas. But in case any of the offences aforesaid be committed in any voyage beyond the narrow seas, whereupon sentence of death

shall be given in pursuance of the aforesaid articles, or any of them, then execution shall be done by order of the commander in chief of that fleet or squadron wherein sentence was passed.

He hath also power to appoint coroners to view dead bodies found on the sea-coast or at sea; commissioners or judges for exercising justice in the High Court of Admiralty; to imprison and to release, &c.

Moreover to him belong, by law and custom, all fines and forfeitures of all transgressors at sea, on the seashore, in ports, and from the first bridge on rivers towards the sea; also the goods of pirates and felons, condemned or outlawed; and all waifs, stray goods, wrecks of sea deodands; a share of all lawful prizes, lagon, jetson, flotson; that is, goods lying in the sea, goods cast by the sea on the shore, not granted formerly, or belonging to lords of manors adjoining to the sea; all great fishes, as sea-hogs, and other fishes of extraordinary bigness, called royal fishes, whales only and sturgeons excepted.

"De sturgeoni observatur quod rex ilua intergram: de balneo vero sufficit si rex habeat caput et reginæ caudam." Master William Prynne, who is one of the commentators upon the above curious law, says, that the reason must be, that "our wise and learned lawgivers willed the queen to have the tail of the whale, that her majesty might have whalebone to make her stays"; forgetting that this was made law upwards of two hundred years before stays were ever worn or thought of. *Note farther*, that the bone used for stays, is taken out of the head, and not the tail of the fish.

On this ancient law being once mentioned to the late Dr. Buchan, author of *Domestic Medicine*, &c. &c. he repeated

the following little impromptu, which I think has never before been printed:

"If a sturgeon should chance to be cast upon land,
"Honest George, Heaven bless him! the whole may command;
"But if equal misfortune befal a poor whale,
"Let the king have the head, and the queen the tail."

It is not the object of this volume to say much concerning the great power and interest which the king of England hath in the British seas; and as to the antiquity of the Admiralty Court, and of the name of Admiral, it may be found in a record mentioned by the Lord Chief Justice Coke (Coke's Institute, p. 142, entitled "De Superioritate Maris Angliæ, et Jure Officii Admiralitatis in eodem"), said to be among the archives in the Tower of London.

He is called admiral from *amir*, an Arabic word signifying *præfectus*, and in Greek *marinus*. His patent formerly run thus: "Angliæ, Hiberniæ, et Aquitanæ magnus admirallus, et præfectus generalis clargis et marium dictorum regnorum."

The various distinguished actions which have been recorded of many of our admirals, and establish the honour and superiority of the British navy, would fill volumes. To enumerate them would occupy more space than can be here allotted to it, and does not come into the plan of this work; but to close the recital of any thing tending to the establishment of our naval character, without inserting the name of the late Lord Nelson, would be a very improper omission.

Painters have exhausted their art in pictured representations of his actions; sculptors have hewn marble monuments to eternize his heroic professional abilities, which have been placed in the most conspicuous situations in different public buildings

throughout the kingdom; and poets have invoked the muse, and exerted their utmost efforts to perpetuate his fame, in praises that, used to any other individual, might have been deemed extravagant panegyric: but the whole nation appear to have been so gratefully alive to his exalted merit, and so highly to revere his memory, that it is hardly deemed equal to what his conduct peremptorily claimed from his surviving countrymen. The Right Honourable Horatio Viscount Nelson, and Duke of Bronte, was a most active, brave, and able officer. He defeated the French fleet in Aboukir Bay, August 1, 1798, and took eight sail of the line; for which he was raised to the peerage. He was second in command at the battle of Copenhagen, where he displayed great courage and conduct; for which he was raised to the dignity of viscount. He completely defeated the combined fleet of France and Spain, off Cape Trafalgar, October 21, 1805, in which he lost his life.

In the advices some of our admirals have transmitted to the Board of Admiralty and others, there is a brevity, which Shakespeare says is the soul of wit; there is, however, a *brevity*, which is so admirable a model of epistolary writing, that I cannot resist transcribing one or two of them; premising, that as they are taken from memory, they may not do justice to the originals.

The first is from Sir George Rodney to the Governor of Barbadoes, and is as follows:

"Dear General,

"The battle is fought,—the day is ours,—the English flag is victorious;—we have taken the French admiral, with nine other ships, and sunk one. "G. B. R."

The second letter was, I think, transmitted to the Admiralty.

"We have met the French fleet, and taken, sunk, or destroyed, as per margin."

The last I shall subjoin is from a foreigner, but seems mixed up with a large portion of *British spirit.* It was written to Admiral Benbow, who died in October 1702, at Jamaica, of the wounds he received in an engagement with M. du Casse, in the West Indies, off the high land of St. Martha, in the same year.

Soon after Admiral Benbow's return to Jamaica, he received a letter from M. du Casse, of which the following is a translation:

CARTHAGENA, *August* 1702.

"Sir,

"I had little hopes on Monday last but to have supped in your cabin; yet it pleased God to order otherwise; I am thankful for it. As for those cowardly captains who deserted you, hang them up; for, by G—d, they deserve it.

"DU CASSE."

The next print is a correct interior view of

THE BOARD ROOM OF THE ADMIRALTY,

with its appropriate decorations of globes, books, maps, &c. The lords commissioners are represented as sitting at the table, and may be naturally supposed engaged in some business relative to the naval interest of Great Britain: and considered in that point of view, may be fairly said to be transacting a business of more real importance to this country, than any other subject that could be debated; and if taken in all its nautical relations,

BOARD ROOM *of the* ADMIRALTY.

the acknowledged pre-eminence of our navy, and the various appertaining et-ceteras, it is also a matter of infinite importance to all Europe.

After what has been said, it does not seem necessary to make any remarks on the extent of the building; but, as it has been before remarked, that the noble lords were engaged in transactions of more importance than attending to the symmetry and proportion of their house, which was probably left to the architect, who might in many cases leave it to the management of his foreman, it may afford some amusement to our readers, to recite a few sportive sallies of the wits of the time on the brick and mortar of the principal front.

They said, and truly said, that it is a contemptible piece of architecture. Of the portico of this building, composed of four Ionic columns, with a pediment of stone, a story is told, that, from the strange disproportion of the shafts, is highly probable. The architect, Shipley, had made them of a proper length, when it was found that the pediment of one of his shafts had blocked up the window of one of the principal apartments; and he endeavoured to remedy the error, by carrying his columns to the roof of the building: and in truth, in its present state, one is compelled to admit the truth of what was remarked by the late George Selwyn, that though the columns are certainly neither of the Doric, Ionic, or Corinthian order, they would be admirable models to take for a new one, which might be denominated the *dis*, or *disproportioned* order; "or," added he, "if we chose to give it immortality, baptize it with an appropriate title, and name it the *Robinsonian* order, in honour of Sir Thomas Robinson."

The figure of Sir Thomas Robinson must be in the recollection

of many of our readers;—so long, so lank, so lean, so bony, that he struck every one who saw him, as distinct from all other men, and out of all manner of proportion. When the late Lord Chesterfield was confined to his room by an illness, of which he felt a consciousness that he should never recover, a friend, who visited him in the character of one of Job's comforters, gravely said, he was sorry to tell his lordship, that every body agreed in thinking he was dying, and that he was dying by inches. "Am I?" said the old peer, "am I indeed? why then I rejoice from the bottom of my soul, that I am not near so tall as Sir Thomas Robinson."

To return to the building: certain it is that such columns never were seen either in Greece, or Rome, or any other country.

The screen in the front, which was designed and erected by Adams, is so far from being liable to any part of this censure, that it forms a striking contrast, and would, if it were possible, shew in a more glaring light the gross absurdities of the principal front of the building.

On the inside of the Admiralty are two telegraphs, which may be seen by a proper application to the porter, or person who works the machine.

ASTLEY'S AMPHITHEATRE

THE Amphitheatre at Westminster bridge has, within these twelve years, been twice destroyed by fire; and the expence of rebuilding, &c. &c. to Messrs. Astleys, the two proprietors, has been estimated as amounting to nearly thirty thousand pounds. The present theatre is the most airy, and in some respects the most beautiful, of any in this great metropolis. The building is one hundred and forty feet long; the width of that part allotted to the audience, from wall to wall, sixty-five feet; and the stage is one hundred and thirty feet wide, being the largest stage in England, and extremely well adapted to the purpose for which it was built, the introduction of grand spectacles and pantomimes, wherein numerous troops of horses are seen in what has every appearance of real warfare, galloping to and fro, &c. &c. The whole theatre is nearly the form of an egg; two thirds of the widest end forms the audience part and equestrian circle, and the smaller third is occupied by the orchestra and the stage. From this judicious arrangement, the whole audience have an uninterrupted prospect of the amusements. It is lighted by a magnificent glass chandelier, suspended from the center, and containing fifty patent lamps, and sixteen smaller chandeliers, with six wax-lights each. The scenery, machinery, decorations, &c. have been executed by the first artists in this country, under the immediate direction of Mr. Astley, jun. who made the fanciful design.

A very good idea of its general appearance, company, &c. is given in the annexed print.

For a looker-on to describe some part of the amusements would be difficult, perhaps impossible; and luckily it is not necessary, for in an advertisement published November 1807, Mr. Astley himself has described one of them in a manner so singularly curious, that we think it ought to be transmitted to posterity; and have therefore inserted it in this volume.

"TO THE EDITOR OF THE MORNING CHRONICLE.

"SIR,

"Having been strongly requested to give some explanation of the utility of the country dances by eight horses, to be performed this and to-morrow evening, I request you will be so obliging as to insert the following hints.

"First, I humbly think that a thorough command and pliability on horseback, is obtained by such noble exercises. Secondly, that in executing the various figures in this dance, the rider obtains a knowledge of the bridle hand, also capacity and capability of the horse, more particularly at the precise time of casting off and turning of partners, right and left, &c. &c. Thirdly, I also conceive that the horseman may be greatly improved when in the act of reducing the horse to obedience on scientific principles!!! and not otherwise. Fourth, as a knowledge of the *appui* in horsemanship is highly desirable, whether on the road, the chase, or field of honour, I expressly composed the various figures in the country dance for this desirable purpose; and which my young equestrian artists have much profited by, as some of them three months since were

never on horseback. It was from this observation, during forty-two years practice, that I gave this equestrian ballet the name of *L'Ecole de Mars;* and I am strongly thankful that my humble abilities have afforded some little information, as well as amusement, to the town in general.

"I am, with respect,

"The public's most humble and faithful servant,

"PHILIP ASTLEY."

"*Pavilion, Newcastle-street, Strand.*"

From all this, a spectator would be almost tempted to think, that, notwithstanding the numerous and learned dissertations of philosophers to exalt their own species, horses rival man in his superior faculties. I have heard a story on this subject, which I believe has not found its way into Joe Miller; but be that as it may, it is a good story, and in a degree illustrates this subject, and I think my reader will not be displeased at the insertion of it.

Some years ago, a very learned and sagacious doctor of the university of Oxford, composed and read a long lecture on the difference of man from beast; and when describing the former, asserted that man was superior to all other animals; because there was no other animal, except man, who either reasoned or drew an inference, as the inferior order of beings were wholly governed by instinct.

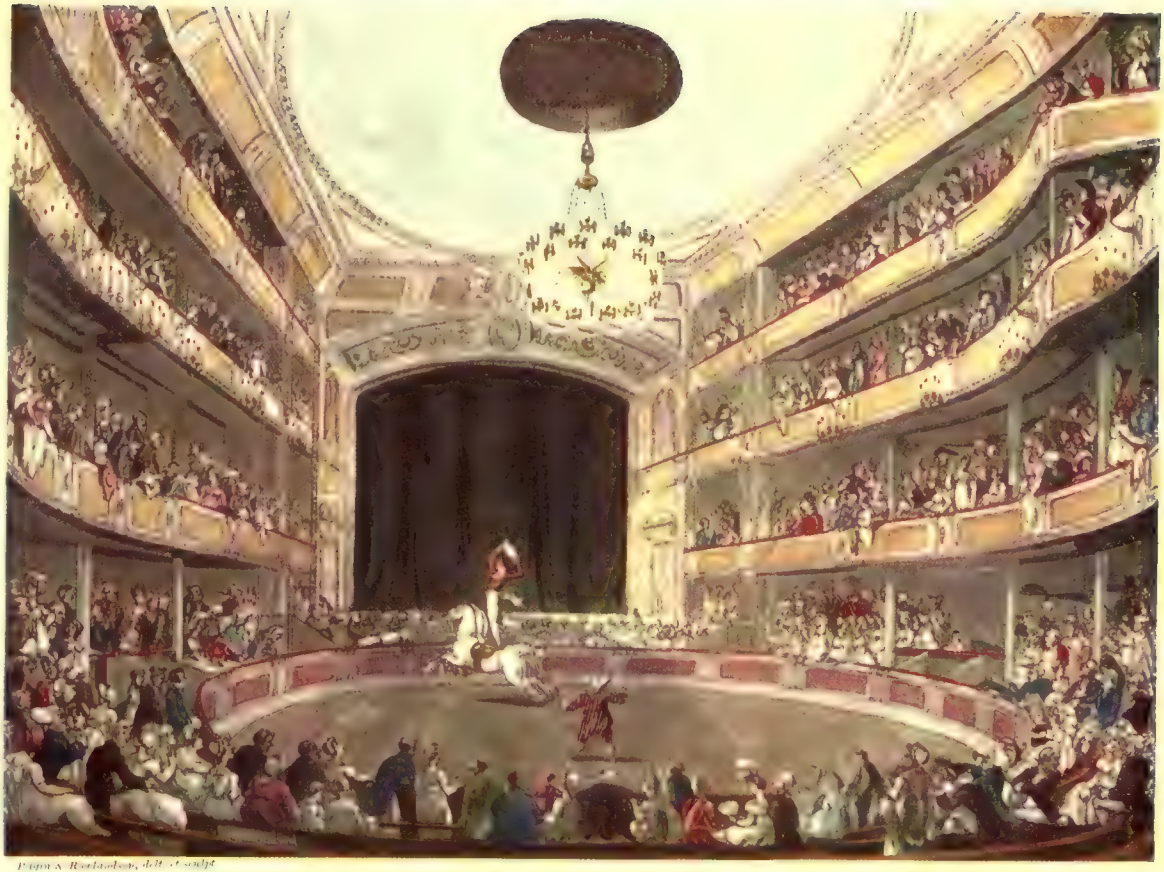
On the conclusion of this philosophical discourse, two of the students, who were not quite satisfied of the fact, walked out to converse upon it, and seeing a house with "WISEMAN, DRAWING MASTER," inscribed upon the sign, went into the shop, and asked

the master what he drew? "Men, women, trees, buildings, or any thing else," was the reply. "Can you draw an inference?" said one of them. The man took a short time to consider it, and candidly replied, that never having seen or heard of such a thing before, *he could not.* The students walked out of his house, and before they had proceeded far, saw a brewer's dray with a very fine horse in it. "A fine horse this," said one of them to the driver. "A very fine one indeed," said the fellow. "Seems a powerful beast," said the other. "I believe he is indeed," replied the fellow. "He can draw a great load, I suppose?" said the Oxonian. "More than any horse in this county," answered the drayman. "Do you think he could draw an inference?" said the scholar. "He can draw *any thing in reason*, I'll be sworn," replied the drayman.

The scholars walked back to the lecture room, and found the company still together; when one of them, addressing the doctor with a very grave face, said to him, "Master, we have been enquiring, and find that your definition is naught; for *we have found a man, and a wise man too, who cannot draw an inference, and we have met with a horse that can.*"

Besides the Amphitheatre, Messrs. Astleys have a very elegant Pavilion, for exhibiting amusements of a similar description, which they have lately erected, and fitted out in a most complete style, in Newcastle-street in the Strand, and named ASTLEY'S PAVILION.

At this place the horses have displayed some feats of so wonderful a description, as could not easily be conceived unless they were seen. In this place eight horses have lately performed country dances, &c. in a manner that has astonished all the



ASTLEY'S AMPHITHEATRE.

spectators. To this have been added divers horsemanships, the twelve wonderful voltigers, &c.

The annexed print, which is

A VIEW OF THE AMPHITHEATRE AT WESTMINSTER BRIDGE,

gives a very good idea of the scene. Mr. Rowlandson's figures are here, as indeed they invariably are, exact delineations of the sort of company who frequent public spectacles of this description; they are eminently characteristic, and descriptive of the eager attention with which this sort of spectators contemplate the business going forward. Small as the figures are, we can in a degree pronounce upon their rank in life, from the general air and manner with which they are marked.

Mr. Pugin is entitled to equal praise, from the taste which he has displayed in the perspective and general effect of the whole, which renders it altogether an extremely pleasing and interesting little print.

With respect to teaching horses to perform country dances, how far thus *accomplishing* this animal, renders him either a more happy or a more valuable member of the horse community, is a question which I leave to be discussed by those sapient philosophers, who have so learnedly and so long debated this important business, with respect to man.

The school of Jean Jaques Rousseau, who insist upon it, that man, by his civilization, has been so far from adding to his happiness, that he has increased and multiplied his miseries, will of course insist upon it, that a horse in his natural state must be infinitely happier, than he can be with any improvements introduced by man; that all these artificial refinements must tend

to diminish, instead of increasing his felicity; and that, as a horse, he had much better be left in a state of nature, than thus tortured into artificial refinement.

The advocates for Swift's system of the Houyhnhnms, in Gulliver's Travels, admitting a horse to be superior to a man, even in his natural state, will unquestionably be of the same opinion; and we must seek farther for the advantages to be derived by introducing a teacher of dancing, and a master of the ceremonies, to this noble and dignified animal.

It is recorded, that at a much earlier period, a right worshipful mayor of Coventry wished to teach his horse good manners. Queen Elizabeth, in one of her progresses to that city, was met, about a mile before she arrived there, by the mayor and aldermen, who desirous of declaring the high honour which they felt she would thus confer on their city, employed the mayor to be their speaker. The mayor was on horseback, and (as the record saith) the queen was also on horseback, behind one of her courtiers. A little rivulet happening to run across the road where they stopped, the mayor's horse made several attempts to drink; which the queen observing, told his worship, that before he began his oration, she wished he would let his horse take his draught. "That, an please your majesty, he shall not," replied the mayor, "that he certainly shall not yet. I would have him to know, that it is proper your majesty's horse should drink first,—and then, he shall."

DINING HALL, ASYLUM.

THE ASYLUM, OR HOUSE OF REFUGE,

IS in the parish of Lambeth, in Surry, and was instituted in the year 1758, for the reception of friendless and deserted girls, the settlement of whose parents cannot be found. It was incorporated in the year 1800.

The annexed print is an interesting representation of the objects of this benevolent institution at their repast, in the presence of some of their guardians, who seem to contemplate the good order, cheerfulness, innocence, and comforts of their little wards, with all that interest and delight, that luxury of fine feeling, which irradiates the countenance when the heart is glowing with benevolence, animated with the exercise of an important duty, and gratified by the conviction that their virtuous endeavours are crowned with success. The *coup d'œil* of the print is most impressive, and does great honour to the talents and feelings of the artists. The sweet innocence of the children, the benevolence of the guardians, and the chaste and matron-like simplicity of the building, aided by a fine breadth of effect, form a whole, which at the same time that the parts are in perfect harmony with each other, is admirably calculated to awaken the tender emotions of the humane heart, and excite the spectator to the exertion of those tender and kindly feelings, which do honour to our nature.

This charity owes its establishment to that vigilant and active magistrate, Sir John Fielding; who had long observed, that

though the laws of this kingdom provided a parish settlement for every person, by birth, parentage, apprenticeships, &c. yet many cases continually occurred, in which such settlements were difficult, if not impossible, to be ascertained; and therefore he and others were solicitous to remove, in part, this source of female wretchedness. By their exertions, and the continued endeavours of those who have hitherto conducted the plan, their benevolent intentions have been rewarded with the most signal success. The generous and discerning public has bestowed the means, which have prospered in the hands of the guardians, by whose care two hundred deserted females are daily sheltered and protected from vice and want, supplied with food and raiment, and taught whatever can render them useful in their situation, or comfortable and happy in themselves.

Carefully instructed in the principles of religion; in reading, writing, needlework, and household business, they are trained to habits of industry and regularity, by which means there is *a supply of diligent and sober domestics* for the use of that public, which, by its contributions, has so nobly acquired a right to their services.

The particular objects of this charity are, *the children of soldiers, sailors, and other indigent persons, bereft of their parents, at a distance from any of their relations; who being too young to afford the necessary information respecting settlements, are often left destitute of protection and support, at an age when they are incapable of earning a subsistence, and contending with surrounding dangers.*

Females of this description are, in a particular manner, the objects of compassion, and have also a double claim to the care

of the humane and virtuous, from being not only exposed to the miseries of want and idleness, but, as they grow up, to the solicitations of the vicious, and the consequent misery of early seduction.

The following are some of the regulations for the government of this charity, which have been made by the guardians from time to time, and now continue in force.

Qualifications of Guardians.

The qualification of an annual guardian is, a yearly subscription of three guineas or upwards.

The qualification of a perpetual guardian is, a subscription of thirty guineas or upwards.

Legacies bequeathed to the use of this charity of one hundred pounds or upwards, when paid, shall entitle the first-named acting executor to be a perpetual guardian.

The guardians, conceiving it to be very essential for promoting one of the chief objects of this institution, earnestly solicit *the ladies, who are particularly qualified for that purpose, frequently to visit the charity, inspect the management of the house, and particularly the employment of the children; also to see that they are properly instructed in housewifery, so as to be qualified for useful domestic servants;* and from time to time communicate to the committee, by letter or otherwise, such observations as they shall deem proper to make.

Employment of the Children.

The children are to make and mend their own linen; make shirts, shifts, and table-linen; to do all kinds of plain needle-

work, and to perform the business of the house and kitchen; to which latter twelve are appointed weekly, according to their age and abilities, to assist the cook, to wash, iron, and get up all the linen. They are likewise taught to read the Bible, write a legible hand, and understand the first four rules in arithmetic.

All kinds of plain needle-work are taken in at the Asylum, and performed by the children at certain rates, which are regulated by the committee.

The following are the Rules for placing out the Children.

They are to be bound apprentices for seven years, at the age of fifteen, or sooner, as domestic servants to reputable families in Great Britain.

No girl shall be apprenticed until the character of the master or mistress applying for the same, shall have been enquired into, and approved of by the committee.

Every person applying for an apprentice must appear at the committee, to give the necessary information respecting their situation, unless such appearance be dispensed with by the committee.

When any girl shall become qualified to be an apprentice, the guardian who presented her shall be acquainted therewith, in order to know if such guardian has any place in view for her.

The guardians, desirous of encouraging the children to serve their apprenticeship faithfully, have empowered the committee to grant any orphan apprenticed from the charity, who shall produce to the committee a certificate, signed by her master or mistress (or both if living), of her good behaviour during her apprentice-

ship, the sum of five guineas, such orphan having first returned public thanks in the chapel for the protection she has received.

The committee are empowered to put out at any time, to any trade they shall think proper, such orphans as may have contracted any disease or infirmity, which may render them incapable of domestic service, with a premium not exceeding ten pounds.

THE ESTABLISHMENT IS AS FOLLOWS:

Patroness of the Institution.

Her Most Gracious Majesty the Queen of Great Britain, &c.

President.

His Royal Highness Prince Adolphus Frederick, Duke of Cambridge.

Vice-Presidents.

The Marquis of Blandford.
Right Honourable Earl Spencer, K.G.
Right Honourable Earl Mansfield.
Right Honourable Admiral Lord Radstock.
Right Honourable Lord Chief Baron.
Sir William Leighton, Knight and Alderman.

A chaplain, a morning preacher, an evening preacher, two physicians, two surgeons, an apothecary, a secretary, messenger, and collector. There are also a treasurer, and a committee consisting of nineteen gentlemen, that are elected annually at the general court held every April. Concerning these for each year, and many other things relative to this praiseworthy institution, every necessary particular may be found in a small abstract account to be had at the Asylum; from which we

extracted the following regulations respecting devises or bequests to the charity, as we have much besides in the preceding pages.

Well-disposed persons, who may be inclined to make devises of rent, or bequests of personal property, for the benefit of this charity, being authorised so to do by the act of Parliament whereby it is incorporated, will be pleased to make such devises and bequests to this corporation by the style and title of *The President, Vice-Presidents, Treasurer, and Guardians of the Asylum for the Reception of Orphan Girls, the Settlement of whose Parents cannot be found.*

Bankers and Receivers.

Messrs. Hankey and Co. Fenchurch-street.
Messrs. Drummond, Charing-Cross.
Messrs. Hoares, Fleet-street.
Messrs. Croft and Co. Lombard-street.
Messrs. Vere, Lucadon, and Co. Lombard-street.
Messrs. Sikes, Snaith, and Co. Mansion-house-street.

The committee, who meet at the Asylum every Thursday, at eleven o'clock in the forenoon.

Charles Wright, Esq. treasurer, and
The Rev. Mr. Agutter, at the Asylum, chaplain and secretary.

We shall close the account of this benevolent institution with the animated apostrophe of the amiable Pennant.

"It is an institution of a most heavenly nature, calculated to save from perdition of soul and body the brighter part of the creation; those on whom Providence hath bestowed angelic faces and elegant forms, designed as blessings to mankind, but too

often debased. The hazards that these innocents are constantly liable to from a thousand temptations, from poverty, from death of parents, from the diabolical procuress, and sometimes from the stupendous wickedness of parents themselves, who have been known to sell their beauteous girls for the purpose of prostitution, induced a worthy hand, in the year 1758, to found the Asylum, or House of Refuge. Long may it flourish, and eternal be the reward of those into whose mind so noble a design entered!"

AN AUCTION

THE print annexed is a spirited representation of that interesting scene, a public auction. The various effect which the lot (a *Venus*) has on the company, is delineated with great ability and humour. The auctioneer, animated with his subject, seems to be rapidly pouring forth such a torrent of eloquence as cannot fail to operate on the feelings of his auditors; indeed, having two of their senses enlisted in his favour, there seems to be little doubt that he will succeed. The eloquence of the rostrum is of a peculiar nature. *Foote*, who delineated every object that he chose with an astonishing truth and felicity, has, in his *Minor*, drawn an auctioneer with so much whim and drollery, and which, if a little *outré*, possesses so many striking characteristics, that it may serve for a portrait of the whole. Our animated auctioneer, adorning his Venus with all the flowers of rhetoric, seems to be saying, with Smirke in the Minor, "*A-going for five and forty,—no body more than five and forty—Pray, ladies and gentlemen, look at this piece!—quite flesh and blood, and only wants a touch from the torch of Prometheus, to start from the canvass and fall a-bidding!*" And these flowers are not scattered in vain; "*for*," continues Smirke, "*a general plaudit ensued,—I bowed, and in three minutes knocked it down at sixty-three—ten.*"

The *tout-ensemble* of this print is marked with propriety and interest. The great variety of character, the masses of light and shade judiciously opposed to each other, the truth of the

Pugin & Rowlandson del.t et sculpt

perspective, and the felicity of touch which the artist has adopted to give the idea of old pictures in the back ground, have the happiest effect imaginable.

That in the rage for purchasing old pictures the craft of experienced dealers should frequently impose upon those who might think it necessary to appear to have, what nature had denied them, taste and judgment, is not to be wondered at. All living genius was discouraged, or only found patrons in these dealers if they would condescend to manufacture for them Raphaels and Claudes, Corregios and Salvator Rosas. That they could not always get a sufficient supply of copies from Italy, the following extract from a valuable work may give some idea :—"Among the papers of a lately deceased virtuoso, I met with a few manuscript sheets, entitled '*Hints for a History of the Arts in Great Britain, from the Accession of the Third George.*' The following extract proves, that painting pictures *called after* the ancient masters, was not confined to Italy : we had in England some industrious and laborious painters, who, like the unfortunate Chatterton, gave the honours of their best performances to others. To the narrative there is no date, but some allusions to a late sovereign determine it to be a short time before we discovered that there were, in the works of our own poets, subjects as well worthy of the pencil as any to be found in the idle tales of antiquity, or the still more idle legends of Popery.

"The late edict of the emperor for selling the pictures of which he has despoiled the convents, will be a very fortunate circumstance for many of the artists in this country, whose sole employment is painting of old pictures ; and this will be a glorious opportunity for introducing the *modern antiques* into the cabinets of the curious.

"A most indefatigable dealer, apprehensive that there might be a difficulty and enormous expence in procuring from abroad a sufficient quantity to gratify the eagerness of the English connoisseurs, has taken the more economical method of having a number painted here. The bill of one of his workmen, which came into my hands by an accident, I think worth preservation, and I have taken a copy for the information of future ages. Every picture is at present most sacredly preserved from the public eye, but in the course of a few months they will be smoked into antiquity, and roasted into old age, and may probably be announced in manner and form following:

'*To the Lovers of Virtu.*

'Mr. —— has the heartfelt pleasure of congratulating the lovers of the fine arts upon such an opportunity of enriching their collections, as no period, from the days of the divine Apelles to the present irradiated æra, ever produced; nor is it probable that there ever will be in any future age so splendid, superb, brilliant, and matchless an assemblage of unrivalled pictures, as he begs leave to announce to the connoisseurs, are now exhibiting at his great room in ————; being the principal part of that *magnificent bouquet*, which has been accumulating for so many ages, been preserved with religious care, and contemplated with pious awe, while they had an holy refuge in the peaceful gloom of the convents of Germany. By the edict of the emperor, they are banished from their consecrated walls, and are now emerged from their obscurity with undiminished lustre! with all their native charms mellowed by the tender softening pencil of time, and introduced to this emporium of taste! this favourite seat of

the arts! this exhibition-room of the universe! and need only to be seen to produce the most pleasing and delightful sensations.

'When it is added, that they were selected by that most judicious and quick-sighted collector, Monsieur D———, it will be unnecessary to say more; his penetrating eye and unerring judgment, his boundless liberality and unremitting industry, have insured him the protection of a generous public, ever ready to patronise exertions made solely for their gratification.

'N.B. Descriptive catalogues, with the names of the immortal artists, may be had as above.'

"THE BILL.

'Monsieur Varnish,	*To Benjamin Bistre,*	*Dr.*
'To painting the Woman caught in Adultery, on a green ground, by Hans Holbein		£3 3 0
'To Solomon's wise Judgment, on pannel, by Michael Angelo		2 12 6
'To painting and canvass for a naked Mary Magdalen, in the undoubted style of Paul Veronese		2 2 0
'To brimstone for smoking ditto		0 2 6
'Paid Mrs. W—— for a live model to sit for Diana bathing, by Tintoretto		0 16 8
'Paid for the hire of a layman, to copy the Robes of a Cardinal, for a Vandyke		0 5 0
'Portrait of a Nun doing Penance, by Albert		0 2 2
'Paid the female figure for sitting thirty minutes in a wet sheet, that I might give the dry manner of Vandyke*		0 10 6

* Some of the ancient masters acquired a *dry* manner of painting from studying after *wet* drapery.—WEBB *on Painting.*

'The Tribute Money rendered with all the exactness of Quintin Mestius, the famed blacksmith of Antwerp	£2	12	6
'To Ruth at the Feet of Boaz, on an oak board, by Titian	3	3	0
'St. Anthony preaching to the Fishes, by Salvator Rosa	3	10	0
'The Martyrdom of St. Winifred, with a view of Holywell Bath, by Old Frank	1	11	6
'To a large allegorical Altar-piece, consisting of Men and Angels, Horses and River-gods; 'tis thought most happily hit off for a Rubens	5	5	0
'To Susannah bathing; the two Elders in the back ground, by Castiglione	2	2	0
'To the Devil and St. Dunstan, high finished, by Teniers	2	2	0
'To the Queen of Sheba falling down before Solomon, by Murillio	2	12	6
'To Judith in the Tent of Holofernes, by Le Brun	1	16	0
'To a Sisera in the Tent of Jael, its companion, by the same	1	16	0
'Paid for admission into the House of Peers, to take a sketch of a great character, for a picture of Moses breaking the Tables of the Law, in the darkest manner of Rembrandt, not yet finished	0	2	6

It is to be hoped, that a general knowledge and taste for the arts are now so far diffused among us, that the nobility and gentry are awake to living merit, and can properly appreciate those powers by which the old masters have acquired their high reputation. They are no longer to be imposed on by the stale

tricks of those jugglers in picture-craft, who made large fortunes by their ill-reposed confidence. A few recent examples will suffice to prove the increased taste and judgment of the public.

In March 1795, the very fine collection of pictures by the ancient masters, the property of Sir Joshua Reynolds, was sold by auction for 10,319*l.* 2*s.* 6*d.*; and in April 1796, various historical and fancy pieces of his own painting, together with some unclaimed portraits, were sold for 4505*l.* 18*s.* His very valuable collection of drawings and prints is not yet disposed of.

In April 1806, thirty-two choice Flemish pictures were sold by auction, and produced 6733 guineas. One of them, by Paul Potter, was knocked down at 1450 guineas; though this, it is said, was bought in.

But it is only for works of the very first-rate excellence, which, in the present state of pictorial knowledge, the nobility and gentry will be liberal; and many speculators in second and third-rate pictures have been miserably disappointed, notwithstanding the pompous and high-sounding names with which they crowded their catalogues. In the year 1802, Count Hagen consigned to England a collection of pictures, the catalogue of which announced a most select assemblage of the very first masters; and the prices they were valued at raised the expectation of cognoscenti to the highest pitch: their number was about sixty, and their value he estimated at 20,000*l.* After many consultations whether they should be exhibited and sold by private contract, or public auction, the latter was determined on; and that Mr. Christie, instead of two days' view, should allow a week for their exhibition. This being settled, the sale came on, and the produce did not nearly cover the expences: it is true, that four of the best

were bought in and sent back to Dresden; but the proprietor had a *deficit* to pay upon the others amounting to 183*l.* 16*s.* besides the freight, &c. for the return of the four unsold: so that he paid for selling his pictures, and gave them into the bargain.

About the same time a Mr. Lemmer arrived with another cargo from Vienna. This was a smaller collection, amounting to about thirty: it was generally supposed that they belonged to Count Harrach. This collection, however, met with no better success: for, after a long private exhibition, a public sale was resorted to; and the result was, that Mr. Lemmer let his rubbish go for whatever it would fetch, and bought in all the pictures that were tolerable. This mad speculation, considering the great distance, the travelling of three people in a carriage built on purpose, and drawn by six horses, and a residence of above eight months in London, could not have cost the noble speculator less than 12 or 1500*l.*

The fate of the Truschessian gallery is still a stronger proof of the absurd notions which foreigners entertain of the knowledge and judgment of English collectors. The count brought over a collection consisting of above one thousand pictures: and that among them were several *chefs d'œuvres*, cannot be denied; but he asserted that the *whole* were *unique*, and of themselves sufficient to form a splendid national gallery; and, by his estimation, at a *fourth part* of their real value, they were worth 60,000*l.* But as Messrs. Fries, bankers at Vienna, had advanced 27,000*l.* to the count, and taken this collection as a security, after many unsuccessful endeavours to dispose of it, the mortgager determined to sell by public auction those not sold by private sale. These pictures were publicly exhibited for about two years:

of course their merits and demerits would be fully ascertained. The net produce of the public and private sale did not amount to more than 18,000*l.*: and here it must be observed, that the mortgagees bought in more than twenty of the best, which they accounted for to the proprietor at the sums the auctioneer knocked them down at, and which are included in the 18,000*l.*

By the statute 19th Geo. III. c. 56. s. 3. it is provided, that no person shall exercise the trade or business of an auctioneer, or seller by commission, at any sale of estate, goods, or effects whatsoever, whereby the highest bidder is deemed the purchaser, without taking out a licence; which, if it is in the bills of mortality, shall be granted by the commissioners of excise, and elsewhere by the collectors, supervisors, &c.; for which licence to sell by auction in any part of England or Wales, shall be paid the sum of twenty shillings, and elsewhere five shillings; and the said licence shall be renewed annually, ten days at least before the expiration of the former; and if any person shall act without such licence, he shall forfeit 100*l.* if it is within the bills, and elsewhere 50*l.*

All kinds of property sold by auction, except cloth wove in this kingdom, and sold in the piece as taken from the loom, and in lots of 20*l.* or upwards, pays a duty of seven-pence in the pound; and the auctioneer shall give a bond on receiving his licence, with two sureties in 5000*l.* that he will, within fourteen days after every such sale, deliver an account thereof at the next excise-office, and will not sell any goods contrary to the directions of this act, 27th Geo. III. c. 13. &c.

THE BANK

THE annexed print represents the hall in which bank notes are issued and exchanged: it is a noble room, seventy-nine feet by forty, and contains a very fine marble statue of King William the Third, the founder of the Bank; an admired piece of sculpture, and the production of Cheere. The various groups of figures in this hall are well conceived, and the busied and careful countenances of the monied interest, well contrasted with the countryman's gaping face of astonishment, and the gaiety of the sailor and his *chère amie:* the perspective is good, and the effect of the whole striking and impressive.

The building called the Bank, is a stone edifice, situated a little to the north of Cornhill. The front, composed of a center eighty feet in length, of the Ionic order, on a rustic base; and two wings, ornamented with a colonnade. The back of the building, which is in Lothbury, is a high and heavy wall of stone, with a gateway for carriages into the bullion-court. The principal entrance into the Bank is from Threadneedle-street. On the east side of this entrance is a passage leading to a very spacious apartment, which is called the Rotunda, where the stock-brokers, stock-jobbers, and other persons meet for the purpose of transacting business in the public funds. Branching out of the Rotunda are the various offices appropriated to the management of each particular stock; in each of these offices, under the several letters

of the alphabet, are arranged the books in which the amount of every individual's interest in such a fund is registered. Here, from the hours of eleven to three, a crowd of eager *money-dealers* assemble, and avidity of gain displays itself in a variety of shapes, truly ludicrous to the disinterested observer. The jostling and crowding of the jobbers is so excessive, and so loud and clamorous at times are the mingled voices of buyers and sellers, that all distinction of sound is lost in a general uproar: on such occasions, which are not unfrequent, a temporary silence is procured by the beadle or porter of the Bank, in the following manner: Dressed in his robe of office, a scarlet gown, and gold-laced hat, he mounts a kind of pulpit, holding in one hand a silver-headed staff, and in the other a watchman's rattle. By a powerful exercise of the rattle, he soon silences the vociferous and discordant clamour, and produces a temporary calm.

The Bank of England was first established in the year 1694, partly for the convenience of commerce, and partly also for the emolument of the proprietors; and it is the greatest bank of circulation in Europe. The scheme was projected by Mr. William Paterson, a merchant, and long debated in the Privy Council. At length, by an act of William and Mary, c. 20. it was enacted, that their majesties might grant a commission to take particular subscriptions for 1,200,000*l.* of any persons, natives or foreigners; whom their majesties were hereby empowered to incorporate, with a yearly allowance of 100,000*l.* viz. 96,000*l.* or 8 per cent. for interest till redeemed, and 4000*l.* to be allowed the intended Bank for charges of management. The corporation was to have the name of "*The Governor and Company of the Bank of England;*" their said fund to be redeemable upon a year's notice

after the 1st of August, 1705, and payment of the principal, and then the corporation to cease. The company was enabled by this act to purchase lands, &c. unlimitedly, and to enjoy the other usual powers of corporation: their stock was to be transferable. They were restricted from borrowing more than 1,200,000*l.* except on Parliament funds; and from trading in any merchandise, except in bills of exchange and bullion, and in the sale of such goods as were the produce of lands purchased by the corporation; and all bills obligatory under the seal of the said corporation, were made assignable by indorsement. The charter of incorporation was executed July 27, 1694; which directs, that there be a governor, deputy-governor, and twenty-four directors; and specifies the qualifications of voters and directors, together with other regulations, which have been farther amended and enlarged by subsequent statutes.

In 1697, the Bank was allowed to enlarge its capital stock by an engraftment of 1,001,171*l.* 10*s.* This engraftment is said to have been for the support of public credit. In 1696, tallies had been at 40, 50, and 60 per cent. discount, and bank notes at 20 per cent. During the great recoinage of silver which was going on at this time, the Bank had thought proper to discontinue the payment of its notes, which necessarily occasioned their discredit. By this engrafting act, as it was called, the capital stock of the Bank was to be exempted from any tax: no act of the corporation, nor of its court of directors, nor sub-committees, should subject the particular share of any member to forfeiture; but these shares were subject to the payment of all just debts contracted by the corporation: and it was made felony to counterfeit the common seal of the Bank affixed to their sealed bills, or to

alter or erase any sum in, or any indorsement on, their sealed notes, signed by order of the said governor and company, or to forge or counterfeit the said bills or notes. This act was judiciously framed for the restoration of public credit; and it served to effect two points, viz. the rescue of the exchequer tallies and orders from the stock-jobbing harpies, by engrafting them into this company; and also cancelling the engrafted bank notes, which had been at 20 per cent. discount, because the government had been greatly deficient in their payments to the Bank; and a good interest was secured to the proprietors of the increased capital. By the statute 6th Anne, c. 22. it was enacted, for securing the credit of the Bank of England, that no other banking company in England should consist of more than six persons, empowered to issue bills or notes payable on demand, or for any time less than six months; which is the only exclusive privilege belonging to the Bank. In pursuance of the 7th Anne, c. 7. the Bank advanced and paid into the Exchequer 400,000*l.*; making in all 1,600,000*l.* which it had advanced upon its original annuity of 96,000*l.* interest, and 4000*l.* for the expence of management. In pursuance of the same act, the Bank cancelled exchequer bills to the amount of 1,775,027*l.* 17*s.* 10½*d.* at 6 per cent. interest: it likewise undertook the circulation of 2,500,000*l.* of exchequer bills, issued for the supply of the year; and it was at the same time allowed to take subscriptions for doubling its capital: in 1709, therefore, the capital of the Bank amounted to 4,402,343*l.* 17*s.* 10½*d.* and it had advanced to government 3,375,027*l.* 17*s.* 10½*d.* By a call of 15 per cent. there was paid in and made stock 656,204*l.* 1*s.* 9*d.*; and by another call of 10 per cent. in 1710, 501,448*l.* 12*s.* 11*d.*: in consequence of these

two calls the Bank capital amounted to 5,559,995*l.* 14*s.* 8*d.* In consideration of the sum of 400,000*l.* advanced to government without interest, the exclusive privileges of the Bank were prolonged to one year's notice after the 1st of August, 1732. By the 12th Anne, c. 11. the company obtained an additional term of ten years to the period of their continuance as a corporation; so that they were not to be dissolved but upon a year's notice after the 1st of August, 1742. In the following year, they first received the subscriptions to a loan for the public service, which had been hitherto usually taken at the Exchequer; but the Bank being found more convenient for monied persons, has usually received them ever since. In pursuance of statute Geo. I. c. 7, 8, 9. in 1717, the Bank delivered up two millions of exchequer bills to be cancelled; and it had therefore, at this time, advanced to government 5,375,027*l.* 17*s.* 10½*d.*: it was now agreed to reduce the interest from 6 to 5 per cent. In pursuance of statute 8th Geo. I. c. 24. in 1722, the Bank purchased of the South Sea Company, stock to the amount of 4,000,000*l.*; and in this year, in consequence of the subscriptions which it had taken in for enabling it to make this purchase, its capital stock was increased by 3,400,000*l.*: at this time, therefore, the Bank had advanced to the public 9,375,027*l.* 17*s.* 10½*d.* of which the sum of 1,600,000*l.* was entitled to 6 per cent. interest till the 1st of August, 1743; but the rest was to be reduced to 4 per cent. from and after Midsummer 1727; and the capital stock amounted only to 8,959,995*l.* 14*s.* 8*d.* It was upon this occasion that the sum which the Bank had advanced to the public, and for which it received interest, began first to exceed its capital stock, or the sum for which it paid a dividend to the proprietors of bank stock; or, in other

words, that the Bank began to have an undivided capital, over and above its divided one; and it has continued to have an undivided capital of the same kind ever since. In 1728, the Company of the Bank advanced to government 1,750,000*l.* at 4 per cent. interest, without any power of enlarging their capital. In the following year, they advanced the farther sum of 1,250,000*l.* at 4 per cent. The capital due from government, after sundry redemptions, was 10,100,000*l.*; of which the sum of 1,000,000*l.* was redeemed in 1738, being part of the principal for exchequer bills cancelled in 1717. In 1742 the company advanced a farther sum of 1,600,000*l.* towards the supply for that year, without receiving any additional allowance for interest or management; but they were empowered to enlarge their capital stock to the same amount. And by the act 15th Geo. II. c. 13. establishing this contract, by which the privileges of the Bank were continued till one year after the 1st of August, 1764, it was declared, that the acts of 7th and 12th Anne, and all other acts for determining the corporation, should be void; and that the Governor and Company of the Bank should remain a body corporate and politic for ever, subject to such regulations as were contained in the acts and charters then in force. The whole sum advanced on the original fund of 100,000*l.* thus became 3,200,000*l.* and the interest upon it, from the 1st of August, 1743, 3 per cent. per annum.

In consequence of the statute 19th Geo. II. c. 6. in 1746, the Bank agreed to deliver up to the Treasury 986,800*l.* in exchequer bills; in lieu of which, it was to have an annuity of 4 per cent. for that sum out of the fund for licensing spirituous liquors; and the Bank was empowered to add the said 986,800*l.* to its capital

stock, by taking in subscriptions for that purpose: accordingly, at Michaelmas 1746, the whole debt due to the Bank by the public was 11,686,800*l.* and its divided capital had been raised, by different calls and subscriptions, to 10,780,000*l.* The state of these sums has continued to be the same ever since. In 1764, the Company of the Bank agreed to advance 1,000,000*l.* towards the supplies in exchequer bills, to be repaid in 1766; and to pay into the Exchequer 110,000*l.* without any repayment of the principal, or allowance of interest for the same: in consideration of which, their charter was extended to the 1st of August, 1786, and the dividend on the company's stock was raised from 4½ to 5 per cent.: at Michaelmas 1767, it was raised to 5½ per cent.

From a very early period after the establishment of the Bank, it had been the practice of the company to assist government with money, by anticipation of the land and malt taxes, and by making temporary advances on exchequer bills and other securities. In the year 1781, the sums thus lent to government amounted to upwards of eight millions, in addition to the permanent debt of 11,686,800*l.* An agreement was now entered into for the renewal of their charter, the term of which was extended to 1812, on the company's engaging to advance 2,000,000*l.* on exchequer bills, at 3 per cent. interest, to be paid off within three years out of the sinking fund. In order to enable them to make this advance, a call of 8 per cent. on their capital was thought necessary, by which their former capital stock of 10,780,000*l.* was increased to 11,642,400*l.* The sum on which they now divide the dividend was also increased one half per cent. so that it now became 6 per cent.

In consequence of large advances to government, the great

exportation of coin and bullion to Germany and Ireland, and several concurring circumstances, which, at the commencement of the year 1797, produced an unusual demand of specie from different parts of the country on the metropolis, an order of the Privy Council was issued on the 26th of February, prohibiting the directors of the Bank from issuing any cash in payment till the sense of Parliament on this subject was obtained. This restriction was sanctioned by Parliament, and a committee was appointed to examine the state of the Bank; from whose report it appeared, that, on the 25th of February, after examining the outstanding claims against it with the corresponding assets, the amount of the demands on the Bank was 13,770,390*l.*; and that of assets, not including the sum of 11,686,800*l.* of permanent debt due by government, was 17,597,298*l.*: so that there was a surplus of 3,826,908*l.*

Soon after the meeting of Parliament in November following, the committee of secrecy, appointed to enquire into the expediency of continuing the restriction on the Bank, reported, that the total amount of outstanding demands on the Bank, on the 11th of November, was 17,578,910*l.*; and of the funds for discharging the same, exclusively of the permanent debt, 21,418,640*l.* leaving a balance in favour of the Bank at that time of 3,839,730*l.* The report stated, that the advances to government had been reduced to 4,258,140*l.*; and that the cash and bullion in the Bank had increased to more than five times the value at which they stood on the 25th of February, 1797, when it was about 1,272,000*l.*

By this statement, the solvency and solidity of the Bank were satisfactorily evinced; and indeed its stability must be coeval with that of the British government. All that it has advanced

to the public must be lost before its creditors can sustain any loss. No other banking company in England can be established by act of Parliament, or can consist of more than six members. It acts, not only as an ordinary bank, but as a great engine of state. It receives and pays the greater part of the annuities which are due to the creditors of the public; it circulates exchequer bills; and it advances to government the annual amount of land and malt taxes, which are frequently not paid up for some years. It likewise discounts the bills of merchants, and has, upon several different occasions, supported the credit of the principal houses, not only of England, but of Hamburgh and Holland. The business of the bank is under the direction of a governor, sub-governor, and twenty-four directors, who are elected annually by a general court; and is transacted by a great number of clerks in different offices.

The qualification of a director is 2000*l.* of a deputy-governor 3000*l.* and of a governor 4000*l.*: 5000*l.* bank stock entitles the proprietor to vote at general courts, provided he has been in possession of it six months.

The company may not improperly be denominated a trading company, and that which is peculiarly distinguished by the appellation of bank stock, is a trading stock, the dividend of which, amounting to 11,642,400*l.* paid half-yearly, and now 7 per cent. accrues from the annual income of the company: and this arises from the interest received for the money advanced by the proprietors to the public, or the permanent debt of 11,686,800*l.*; from interest on the annual temporary advances; from the profits of their dealings in bullion and of their discount; from the interest of stock held by the company; from the sums allowed by govern-

ment for the management of the annuities paid at the offices of the Bank, such as an allowance of 450*l.* per million for management of the public funds, and the allowance of 805*l.* 15*s.* 10*d.* per million for receiving the contributions to loans; and from some other smaller articles.

The Bank of England may be considered as the main spring of that complicated mechanism, by which the commercial payments of this country are transacted, and by which the comparatively small sum of money with which they are transacted, is kept in perpetual and regular circulation. The subordinate parts of this machine consist of about seventy private banking-houses in London, and about three hundred and eighty-six banks dispersed over the country. By the joint operation of these various money-dealers, almost all bank payments founded on commercial bargains, are ultimately settled in London with the money which issues from the Bank of England. This money consists, in ordinary times, partly of coin, and partly of bank notes. From its large capital and extensive issue of paper, that Bank indirectly supplies the nation with as much gold as is required for circulation. Its notes are issued in loans, granted either for the accommodation of the public Treasury, or for that of merchants, by discount of their bills; and, in consequence of a common agreement among the bankers, no notes of any private house are current in London. All the large payments of that metropolis are in this manner effected by the paper of the Bank of England, and they are chiefly transacted by the private bankers, who, according to a conjectural estimate, make daily payments to the amount of four or five millions, and have probably in their hands a very large proportion of the whole of the notes circulating in the metropolis.

The following table will exhibit, at one view, the state of the cash and bullion, the average of bank notes in circulation, and also the discounts and advances to government during the several periods which it comprehends.

DATE.		CASH AND BULLION.	AVERAGE OF BANK NOTES CIRCULATED.	BILLS DISCOUNTED.	AVERAGE ADVANCES TO GOVERNMENT.
1793.	March .	3,506,000	11,963,820	4,819,000	8,735,200
	June . .	4,412,000	12,100,650	5,128,000	9,434,000
	September	6,836,000	10,936,620	2,065,000	9,455,700
	December	7,722,000	10,967,310	1,976,000	8,887,500
1794.	March .	8,612,000	11,159,720	2,908,000	8,494,400
	June . .	8,208,000	10,366,450	3,263,000	7,735,800
	September	8,096,000	10,343,900	2,000,000	6,779,800
	December	7,768,000	10,927,970	1,887,000	7,545,100
1795.	March .	7,940,000	12,432,240	2,287,000	9,773,700
	June . .	7,356,000	10,912,680	3,485,000	10,879,700
	September	5,792,000	11,034,790	1,887,000	10,197,600
	December	4,000,000	11,608,670	3,109,000	10,863,100
1796.	March .	2,972,000	10,824,670	2,820,000	11,351,000
	June . .	2,582,000	10,770,000	3,730,000	11,269,700
	September	2,532,000	9,720,440	3,352,000	9,901,100
	December	2,500,000	9,645,710	3,796,000	9,511,400
1797.	February .	1,270,000	8,640,250	2,905,000	10,672,490

In the beginning of 1798, the Bank advanced to government 3,000,000*l.* of exchequer bills, and in the progress of the year a farther advance of 500,000*l.*; so that the total sum advanced by the Bank for the public service, and outstanding on the 7th of

December, was 6,777,739*l.* At a general court held the 14th of March, 1799, it was agreed to advance to government 1,500,000*l.* on exchequer bills; and it was proposed to divide among the proprietors the 5 per cent. stock held by the company, for the million subscribed to the Loyalty loan; and with this view, to purchase 39,240*l.* of the same stock, to make up the sum held by them to 1,164,240*l.* in order to make a dividend of 10*l.* 5 per cent. stock for every 100*l.* bank capital: accordingly the transfer was made on the 1st of June.

In November following, a negociation was entered into for renewing the term of the company's charter, although about thirteen years of it remained. The proposition was agreed to at a general court held January the 9th, 1800. The conditions were, that the Bank should advance to government 3,000,000*l.* for the service of the year 1800, on exchequer bills, payable, without interest, out of the supplies to be granted for the year 1806: in consideration of which the term of their charter was continued till the end of twelve months' notice after the 1st of August, 1833.

The amount of bank notes in circulation had gradually increased since the beginning of 1797, and, during the year 1800, amounted to about 15,000,000*l.* The amount, on an average of a month, to the 25th of January, 1801, was 16,365,200*l.* consisting of 13,845,800*l.* in notes of 5*l.* and upwards, and 2,519,400*l.* in notes of 1*l* and 2*l.*

At a general court held the 19th of March, 1801, another occasional dividend of stock was proposed. This dividend was to be made of 582,120*l.* of 5 per cent. navy annuities, at the rate of 5 per cent. for every 100*l.* bank capital; and the transfer was made on the first of May.

BARTHOLOMEW FAIR

THE annexed print is a spirited representation of this British Saturnalia. To be pleased in their own way, is the object of all. Some hugging, some fighting, others dancing: while many are enjoying the felicity of being borne along with the full stream of one mob, others are encountering all the dangers and vicissitudes of forcing their passage through another; while one votary of pleasure is feasting his delighted eyes with the martial port of Rolla, and the splendid habiliments of the Virgins of the Sun, another disciple of Epicurus is gratifying his palate with all the luxury of fried sausages, to which he is attracted by the alluring invitation of "*Walk into my parlour!*" The ambitious, who, seated in triumphal cars, are by the revolution of a wheel, like that of Fortune's, raised to the highest pinnacle of human wishes, look down with scorn on the little grovellers below, reckless that they gain their dangerous elevation at the hazard of their necks, and that, by another turn of the wheel, they must sink to the base level from which they arose.

A number of youths, *each with the lass he loves*, are carelessly disporting in the swings; indeed so carelessly, that one of them appears to have fallen out. The mighty Nimrods, each bestriding their fiery coursers on the round-about, pursue the chace with

BARTHOLOMEW FAIR.

ardour; their ladies, seated in chariots, lead or follow with alacrity in their circle of amusements.

The wise zoologist finds ample gratification in Mr. Pidcock's astonishing exhibition of wild beasts, assured by the stentoric showman, that here is to be seen "*The largest elephant in the world, except himself!*" The conjuror overwhelms his wondering spectators with his surprising manual dexterity, and the philosophic operation of eating fire. Saunders, with his equestrian exercises, rope-dancing, and tumbling, has also his full share of attraction. Richardson delights a joyous group with the humours of their old and ever-welcome friend Punch; while a lady, with a tambourine, and a hero with a trumpet, are, with all their powers, adding to the *concert of sweet sounds*, which resounds from every quarter.

The general effect of this print is highly interesting. The contrast of the gaudy glaring lights of the various booths, opposed to the calm and serene light of

> ———"the wandering moon,
> "Riding near her highest noon,"

has the happiest effect imaginable. The bustle and confusion of the various groups are well conceived, and executed with spirit. The surrounding scenery, St. Bartholomew's hospital, the church, and the houses in Smithfield, are correct, and give an identity and value to the scene.

Of the origin and progress of this ancient and celebrated fair, it may be necessary to give some account; and it may not be uninteresting to give some idea of the other sports and diversions of our warlike and gallant ancestors, when Smithfield was the principal scene of action.

From "HOGARTH *illustrated by John Ireland*," the following essay on the rise and progress of fairs is extracted.—*Vol. I. article* SOUTHWARK FAIR.

"At a time when martial hardihood was the only accomplishment likely to confer distinction, when war was thought to be the most honourable pursuit, and agriculture deemed the only necessary employment, there was little social intercourse, and so few retail dealers, that men had no very easy means of procuring those articles which they occasionally wanted. To remove this inconvenience, it was found necessary to establish some general mart, where they might be supplied. Fairs were therefore instituted, as a convenient medium between the buyer and seller, and were at first considered as merely places of trade.* They were generally held on the eve of saints' days. Some of them continued open many weeks, and had peculiar privileges, to encourage the attendance of those who had goods upon sale. The pedlar travelled from city to city, or from town to town, with his movable warehouse, and furnished his customers with what served them until his periodical return.

"As men grew more polished, their wants increased, their intercourse became more general, and the importance of commerce was better understood. The merchant deposited his goods in a warehouse, and the trader opened a shop. *Fairs*, deserted by men of business, gradually changed their nature, and, instead of being crowded by the active and industrious, were the haunts of the idle and dissolute. Such they were at the time of this

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* The *fairs at Chester*, and some few other places, still keep up the spirit of the original institution.

delineation [Southwark Fair], made in 1733, and may be considered as a true picture of the holiday amusements of that period. Bartholomew Fair had a similar origin."

According to Fitz-stephen, a writer in the reign of Henry II. "Without one of the gates was a smooth or *smethe* field, both in name and deed, where, every Friday, unless it be a solemn bidden holiday, is a notable shew of horses to be sold. Earls, barons, knights, and citizens, repair thither to see or to buy. There may you of pleasure see amblers pacing it delicately; there you may see trotters fit for men of arms, sitting more hardily; there you may have young horses not yet broken, &c. In another part of that field are to be sold implements of husbandry, as also fat swine, milch kine," &c.

"To the priory of St. Bartholomew, Henry II. granted the privilege of a fair, to be kept yearly, at Bartholomew's tide, for three days, to wit, the eve, the day, and the next morrow. To the which the *clothiers* of England, and drapers of London, repaired; and had their booths and stalls within the churchyard of this priory, closed in with walls and gates, locked every night, and watched, for the safety of men's goods and wares. A court of Piepowders was daily during the fair holden for *debts* and *contracts*. But now, notwithstanding all proclamations of the Prince, and also the act of Parliament, in place of booths within the churchyard, only letten out in the fair-time, and closed up all the year after, be many large houses builded; and the north wall towards *Long-lane* being taken down, a number of tenements are there erected for such as give great rents."—Stow.

Smithfield, besides being a market for cattle and horses, hay, straw, etc. and a *cloth fair*, was famous also for the celebration of

royal justs and tournaments. A general fair was likewise held at Bartholomew tide.

To show the gallantry of those days of chivalry, it may not be impertinent to give an extract of one of those royal justs from Froisart.

"In the fourteenth of Richard II. royal justs and tournaments were proclaimed to be done in Smithfield, to begin on Sunday next after the feast of St. Michael. Many strangers came forth out of other countries, namely, Valerian, Earl of St. Paul, that had married King Richard's sister; the Lady Maud Courteney; and William, the young Earl of Ostarvant, son to Albret of Baviere, Earl of Holland and Henault.

"At the day appointed, there issued forth of the Tower, about the third hour of the day, sixty coursers, apparelled for the justs; upon every one an esquire of honour, riding a soft pace. Then came forth sixty ladies of honour, mounted upon palfraies, *riding on the one side*, richly apparelled; and every lady led a knight with a chain of gold. Those knights being on the king's party, had their armour and apparel garnished with white harts, and crowns of gold about the harts' necks; and so they came riding through the streets of London to Smithfield, with a great number of trumpets and other instruments of music before them. The king and queen, who were lodged in the bishop's palace in the city of London, were come from thence with many great estates, and placed in chambers to see the justs. The ladies that led the knights were taken down from their palfraies,* and went up to chambers prepared for them. Then alighted the esquires

* It was in this reign side-saddles were first used in England.

of honour from their coursers, and the knights in good order mounted upon them; and after the helmets were set on their heads, and being ready at all points, proclamation was made by the heralds, the justs began, and many commendable courses run, to the great pleasure of the beholders. These justs were continued many days with great feasting."

One other instance we shall take from Stow, to shew that these sports were attended with some danger.

"In the year 1467, the seventh of Edward IV. the Bastard of Bourgoigne challenged the Lord Scales to fight with him on horseback and on foot. The king therefore caused the lists to be prepared in Smithfield: the timber-work cost two hundred marks, besides the fair and costly galleries prepared for the ladies and others: at which martial exercise the king and nobility were present. The first day they ran together with speeres, and departed with equal honour. The next day they turneyed on horseback, the Lord Scales's horse having on his chafron a long pike of steel, and as the two champions coped together, the same horse thrust his pike into the nostrils of the Bastard's horse, so that for very pain he mounted so high, that he fell on the one side with his master; and the Lord Scales rode about him with his sword drawn, till the king commanded the marshal to help up the Bastard; who said, 'I cannot hold up the clouds; for though my horse fail me, I will not fail an encounter, companion.' But the king would not suffer them to do any more that day.

"The next morrow they came into the lists on foot with two pole-axes, and fought valiantly; but at last the point of the pole-axe of the Lord Scales entered into the side of the Bastard's

helm, and by force might have placed him on his knees, but the king cast down his warder, and the marshal severed them. The Bastard required that he might perform his enterprise, but the king gave judgment, as the Bastard relinquished his challenge."

These were the amusements of the higher orders; those of the citizens are also interesting and instructive. "Let us now," saith Fitz-stephen, "come to the sports and pastimes, seeing it is fit that a city should not only be commodious and serious, but also merry and sportful. In the holidays, all the summer, the youths are exercised in leaping, dancing, shooting, wrestling, casting the stone, and practising their shields. The maidens trip with their timbrels, and dance as long as they can well see."

These manners continued with little variation to the time of Henry VIII.

In the infancy of the drama, the young men were taught to perform in the Holy Mysteries; one of which was exhibited in 1391, at the Skinners Well, adjoining Smithfield, which lasted three days together, the king, queen, and nobles being present; and in 1409, one which lasted eight days, and was intended to represent the Creation. To these succeeded the performance of tragedies and comedies, then called stage-plays, which have continued a favourite diversion with your Englishmen ever since the time

> "When sweetest Shakespeare, Fancy's child,
> "Warbled his native wood-notes wild."

Bartholomew Fair had now for a long time, instead of three

days, lasted a fortnight, and was unquestionably productive of some habits of dissipation, and much loss of time, among the lower orders of people who attended it. At length, in 1708, the magistracy of the city determined to reduce the fair to the original time of three days, and confine it to its first purpose, that of selling merchandise only; and an order of common council was made accordingly: but seems to have been ill obeyed, as in 1735, the court of aldermen came to a resolution touching Bartholomew Fair, "that it shall not exceed Bartholomew eve, Bartholomew day, and the day after; and that during that time nothing but stalls and booths shall be erected for the sale of goods, wares, and merchandises, and no *acting be permitted.*" This order it appears was obeyed no better. But Southwark Fair, and many others, were at this time suppressed. Of the acting at Bartholomew Fair, little is known before the time of Elkannah Settle, who is only now remembered from having been the rival of Dryden, and having been honoured by Pope with a niche in the Dunciad. Settle was born in 1648: in 1680 he was so violent a Whig, that the ceremony of pope-burning, on the 17th of November, was entrusted to his management; he wrote much in defence of the party, and with the leaders was in high estimation. Politicians and patriots were formed of much the same materials then as they are now. Settle being disappointed in some of his views, became as violent a Tory as he had been a Whig, and actually entered himself a trooper in King James's army on Hounslow Heath. The Revolution destroyed all his prospects, and in the latter part of his life he was so reduced as to attend a booth, which was kept by Mrs. Minns, and her daughter,

Mrs. Leigh, in Bartholomew Fair. From these people he received a salary for writing drolls, which were generally approved. In his old age he was obliged to appear in these wretched exhibitions; and in the farce of *St. George for England*, performed the part of the dragon in a case of green leather of his own invention. To this circumstance Dr. Young refers in his epistle to Pope:

> "Poor Elkannah, all other changes past,
> "For bread in Smithfield dragons hiss'd at last;
> "Spit streams of fire, to make the butchers gape,
> "And found his manners suited to his shape."

In these humble representations some of our greatest actors made their first appearance, and not a few of them, after they had attained high eminence, *ranted*, strutted, and bellowed through all the days it was kept open, to their own emolument, and the heartfelt satisfaction of Thames-street beaux and the black-eyed beauties of Puddle-dock. In 1733, a booth was built in Smithfield for the use of T. Cibber, Bullock, and H. Hallum; at which the tragedy of *Tamerlane*, with the *Fall of Bajazet*, intermixed with the comedy of the *Miser*, was actually represented. The bill of fare with which these gentlemen tempted their customers, may properly enough be called an olio; and the royal elephant sheet on which the titles of the play were printed, throws the comparatively diminutive bills of a theatre royal into the back ground.

In some of the provinces distant from the capital, dramatic exhibitions are still given out in the quaint style which marked the productions of our ancestors. This sometimes excites the

laughter of the scholar, but it whets the curiosity of the rustic; and whatever helps to fill a theatre, must be *the best of all possible methods.* From the mode of announcing some late productions at the two royal theatres, there seems good reason to expect, that the admirers of this style of writing will soon be gratified by having it introduced into the London play-bills, or at least into the London papers.

But leaving the mighty characters who tread the *London boards* to their admirers, let us return to humbler scenes, and give one example out of many which they annually afford. A play-bill printed some years ago at *Ludlow*, in *Shropshire*, was nearly as large as their principal painted scene, and dignified with letters that were truly CAPITAL, for each of those which composed the name of a principal character was near a foot long. The play was for the benefit of a very eminent *female performer*, the bills said, to be written by herself, and thus was the evening's amusement announced:

"For the benefit of Mrs. ******, by particular desire of B. G. Esq. and his most amiable lady, this present evening will be performed a deep tragedy, containing the doleful history of *King Lear and his Three Daughters*, with the merry conceits of his majesty's fool, and the valorous exploits of General Edmund, the Duke of Gloster's bastard. All written by one William Shakespeare, a mighty great poet, who was born in Warwickshire, and held horses for gentlemen at the sign of the Red Bull in St. John's-street, near West Smithfield; where was just such another play-house as that to which we humbly invite you, and hope for the good company of all friends round the Wrekin."

"All you who would wish to cry or to laugh,
"You had better spend your money here than in the alehouse by half.
"And if you likes more about these things for to know,
"Come at six o'clock to the barn in the High-street, Ludlow;
"Where presented by *live actors*, the whole may be seen:
"So *vivant rex*, God save the king, not forgetting the Queen!"

See HOGARTH *illustrated by John Ireland.*

After Cibber and his companions, Shuter and Yates exhibited at Bartholomew Fair; since which time none of the performers of the theatres royal have had booths there, and the fair has been reduced to its original term of three days.

Rowlandson's Progrs. del. et sculpt.

BILLINGSGATE MARKET

BILINGSGATE

THE accompanying print represents, with great humour and animation, a scene in this renowned school of *British oratory*, an academy from which many illustrious orators, both of the bar and the senate, have derived that energetic and forcible manner, which, in honour of the original seminary, is so emphatically termed *Bilingsgate*. The power of their eloquence has raised such a tempest and whirlwind of passion in the gentle bosoms of two fair disputants, that, forgetting or laying aside the native softness and delicacy of their sex, they have engaged in furious combat. One of them is just overthrown by her more fortunate adversary, but though fallen, her spirit seems to rise above her fate, and she yet dares the conflict and hopes for victory. Their sister *Naïads* on either side encourage and foment the immortal strife: one of them has fallen with inconceivable fury on a wretch, who is possibly a Frenchman and a fiddler, and has probably raised this storm by either undervaluing the fair one's fish, or having made some *mal-à-propos* observation on its degree of freshness; be this as it may, he seems to be nearly in as bad a situation as *Orpheus*,

> "When, by the rout that made the hideous roar,
> "His goary visage down the stream was sent,
> "Down the swift Hebrus to the Lesbian shore."

It appears highly probable that the ladies who used poor Orpheus so cruelly, were *Grecian Bilingsgates;* and as they were votaries of Bacchus, and acted under his divine impulse, it seems to strengthen the opinion: certain it is, that the English *poissardes* are as jealous devotees of the jolly god, as the Grecian *Mænades* could be for their lives, and quite as apt to be quarrelsome in their cups: but this point may be left to the learned to settle. In the foreground of this print, one of the ladies is so overcome that she is quite insensible to the kindness of a fisherman, who is entreating her to drink another cup of comfort; she is equally insensible to the robbery a dog is committing on her basket of fish. The old citizen buying a turbot, and the various groups of market people, are delineated with great spirit and fidelity. The buildings are extremely accurate, the perspective easy and natural, and the *tout-ensemble* interesting and animated.

"Bilingsgate, or, to adapt the spelling to the conjectures of antiquaries, who go 'beyond the realms of *chaos* and old night,' Belin's-gate, or the gate of Belinus, king of Britain, fellow-adventurer with Brennus, king of the Gauls, at the sacking of Rome, three hundred and sixty years before the Christian æra: I submit to the etymology, but must confess there does not appear any record of a gate at this place. His son Lud was more fortunate, for Ludgate preserves his memory to every citizen who knows the just value of antiquity. *Gate* here signifies only a place where there was a concourse of people,* a common quay or wharf, where there is a free going in and

* Skinner's Etymology.

out of the same.* This was a small port for the reception of shipping, and for a considerable time the most important place for the landing of almost every article of commerce. It was not till the reign of William III. that it became celebrated as a fish-market; he, in 1699, by act of Parliament, made it a free port for fish." This act also settled the tolls and duties to be taken, appoints a fine of 20*l.* to be levied on any fishmonger convicted of engrossing, and permits the sale of *mackarel* on Sundays. The practice of engrossing and regrating still increasing, it was thought necessary, by an order of the lord mayor, 1707, to endeavour to remedy this abuse. The order states, that, Whereas in and by an act of Parliament made in the tenth and eleventh years of the reign of King William III. intituled, *An act to make Bilingsgate a free market for fish, &c.* it was provided, that any person might buy or sell any kind of fish in the said market, and sell them again in any other market by retail. But the fishmongers bought up the cargoes of the fishermen, and sold them again in the same market, which considerably enhanced the price to the consumer: it was therefore ordered, that no fishmonger, or other person, should sell, or expose to sale, any fish at Bilingsgate market; only fishermen, their wives, apprentices, or servants, were to be permitted to sell in the market by retail, that the citizens might have the fish at first hand, according to the true meaning of the law. It was ordered also, that the hours for the fish-market should be, from Lady-day to Michaelmas, at four o'clock in the morning, and from Michaelmas to Lady-day, at six o'clock; that none presume to buy or sell any fish before those

* Edward the First's grant of Botolph's quay.

hours, except *herrings, sprats, mackarel, and shell-fish*, on pain of being proceeded against as forestallers of the market. Notice of the opening of the market is given by the ringing of a bell; the market continues open till twelve o'clock, when the business closes for two hours, after which it again commences, and continues till five in the evening. The whole is under the jurisdiction of the lord mayor and court of aldermen. A clerk of the market attends to receive the tolls, &c.; and he has authority to order, that all the fish brought into the port shall be sold in the market, and all fish that he shall deem putrid and unwholesome, by his order must be destroyed. The business of the market is now conducted by salesmen, to whom the cargoes of the boats are consigned by the owners; great quantities of fish are also brought from the coast by land carriage. About fourteen or fifteen years since, commenced the practice of bringing fresh salmon from Newcastle and Berwick, inclosed in boxes of ice, by which excellent contrivance the inhabitants of London are supplied with that fish extremely reasonable and in the greatest perfection.

Pennant gives a curious list of the fish brought to market in the reign of Edward I. who descended even to regulate the prices.

	s.	*d.*
"The best plaice.....	o	1½
"A dozen of best soles	o	3
"Best fresh mulvil, i.e. *molva*, either cod or ling	o	3
"Best haddock	o	2
"Best barkey	o	4
"Best mullet	o	2

	s.	d.
"Best dorac, *John Dorec*	0	5
"Best conger	1	0
"Best turbot	0	6
"Best bran sard and betule	0	3
"Best mackarel in *Lent*	0	1
"And out of *Lent*	0	0½
"Best gurnard	0	1
"Best fresh merlings, i.e. *merlangi*, whitings, four for	0	1
"Best powdered ditto, twelve for	0	1
"Best pickled herrings, twenty for	0	1
"Best fresh ditto, before *Michaelmas*, six for ...	0	1
"Ditto, after *Michaelmas*, twelve for	0	1
"Best Thames or Severn lamprey	0	4
"Best fresh oysters, a gallon for	0	2
"A piece of rumb, gross and fat, I suspect holibut, which is usually sold in pieces, at ...	0	4
"Best sea-hog, i.e. porpoise	6	8
"Best eels, a strike or ¼ hundred	0	2
"Best lampreys in winter, the hundred	0	8
"Ditto at other times	0	6
"These by their cheapness must have been the little lampreys now used for bait; but we also imported lampreys from *Nantes*, the first which came in was sold for not less than ...	1	4
"A month after at	0	8
"Best fresh salmon, from *Christmas* to *Easter*, for	5	0
"Ditto ditto, after	3	0
"Best smelts, the hundred	0	1
"Best roach in summer	0	1
"Best lucy or pike, at	6	8

"Among these fish, let me observe the conger is at present never admitted to any good table; and to speak of serving up a porpoise whole, or in part, would set your guests a-staring; yet such is the difference of taste, that both these fish were in high esteem. King *Richard's* master cooks have left a most excellent receipt for *congur* in *sawse;** and as for the other great fish, it was either to be eaten roasted or salted, or in broth, or *furmente with porpesse.* The learned Doctor Caius even tells us the proper sauce, and says, that it should be the same with that for a *dolphin;* another dish unheard of in our days. From the great price the *lucy* or pike bore, one may reasonably suspect it was at that time an exotic fish, and brought over at a vast expence. To this list of sea-fish, which were in those days admitted to table, may be added the sturgeon and ling; and there is twice mention, in Archbishop Nevill's great feast, of a certain fish, both roasted and baked, unknown at present, called a thirl-poole."

* Forme of cury.

Pugin & Rowlandson, del. et sculpt.

THE HALL, BLUE COAT SCHOOL.

THE BLUE COAT SCHOOL

THE annexed print represents the greatest public exhibition made by this noble charity, on St. Matthew's day, September 21st.

Two orations are annually pronounced in praise of this institution, one in Latin and the other in English, by two of the senior boys, called *Grecians*, who receive a superior education, being designed to complete their studies at the universities, one of them being sent *annually* to *Cambridge*, and every *three years* one is sent to *Oxford*. The orations are delivered in the presence of the governors and their friends, and the masters of the various schools, &c. in the great hall, a very noble apartment; the scene is truly impressive and solemn. The artists have exerted great ability and judgment in the disposition of such a numerous assemblage of people, in the distribution of the light and shade, and the truth of the perspective. The sketch of the very large picture in the hall adds to the interest.

In the year 1224, eighth Henry III. nine friars of the order of St. Francis arrived at Dover; five of them remained at Canterbury, the other four came to London, where they had so much influence on the piety or the superstition of the people, that in the following year John Ewin, mercer, purchased for them a piece of waste land within Newgate, on which, in about

twenty years, rose the house and church of the Grey Friars. The church was one of the most superb of the conventual kind, and was erected by the contributions of the opulent devout. Margaret, second queen to Edward I. in 1306, began the choir, giving in her lifetime 2000 marks, and 100 marks by her testament. Isabella, queen to Edward II. gave 70*l.* and queen Philippa, wife to Edward III. 62*l.* towards the building. John de Britagne built the body of the church at a vast expense: Gilbert de Clare, Earl of Gloucester, gave twenty great beams out of his forest at Tunbridge. No order of monks seem to have had powers of persuasion equal to these poor friars: they raised vast sums for their buildings among the rich; and there were few of their admirers, when they came to die, who did not console themselves with the thoughts of lying within their expiating walls, and if they were particularly wicked, thought themselves secure from the assault of the devil, if their corpse was wrapped in the habit and cowl of a friar. Multitudes, therefore, of all ranks were crowded in this holy ground: it boasts of receiving four queens, Margaret and Isabella above-mentioned; Joan, daughter to Edward II. and wife of Edward Bruce, king of Scotland; and to make the fourth, Isabella, wife to William Warren, titular King of Man, is named. Of these, *Isabella*, whom GRAY so strongly stigmatizes

> "She-wolf of France, with unrelenting fangs,
> "That tear'st the bowels of thy mangled mate,"

I hope was wrapped in the friar's garment, for few stood more in need of a dæmonifuge. With wonderful hypocrisy, she was buried with the heart of her murdered husband on her breast.

John, Duc de Bourbon, one of the noble prisoners taken at the battle of Agincourt, after eighteen years imprisonment, in 1443 here found a tomb.

In the same ground lies *Thomas Burdett*, Esq. ancestor of the present Sir *Francis Burdett*. He had a white buck, which he was particularly fond of: this the king, *Edward* IV. happened to kill. *Burdett*, in anger, wished the horns in the person's body who advised the king to it: for this he was tried, as wishing evil to his sovereign, and for this only, lost his head.

To the regret of the lovers of antiquity, all these ancient monuments and gravestones were sold, in 1545, by Sir *Martin Bowes*, lord mayor, for about 50*l.*

The library founded here in 1429, by the munificent *Whittington*, must not be forgotten: it was 129 feet long, 31 broad. In three years it was filled with books to the value of 556*l.* of which Sir Richard contributed 400*l.* and Dr. Thomas Winchelsey, a friar, supplied the rest. This was about thirty years before the invention of printing.

On the dissolution, this fine church, after being spoiled of its ornaments for the king's use, was made a storehouse for French prizes, and the monuments either sold or mutilated.

Henry, just before his death, touched with remorse, granted the convent and church to the city, and caused the church to be opened for divine service.

The building belonging to the friars was by Edward VI. applied to this useful charity. That amiable young prince did not require to be stimulated to good actions; but it is certain, that, after a sermon of exhortation by Ridley, bishop of London, he founded the three great hospitals in this city, judiciously

adapted to provide for the necessities of the poor, divided into three classes: Christ-Church Hospital for the *orphan*, St. Thomas's Hospital for the diseased, and Bridewell for the thriftless. After the sermon, Edward ordered the good bishop to attend him. The account of this interview is very interesting, and as *Stow* relates it as a matter of fact from the word of the bishop, I shall extract a part of it *verbatim*.

"As soon as the sermon was ended, the king willing him not depart until that he had spoken to him, and this that I now write was the very report of the said Bishop Ridley, who, according to the king's command, gave his attendance; and so soon as the king's majesty was at leisure, he called for him to come unto him in a great gallery at Westminster; where, to his knowledge, and the king told him so, there was present no more persons but they two, and therefore made him sit down in one chair, and he himself in another, which, as it seemed, were before the bishop purposely set, and caused the bishop, maugre his teeth, to be covered, and then entered communication with him in this manner:

"First giving him hearty thanks for his sermon and good exhortation for the relief of the poor, '*But, my lord,*' *quoth he,* '*you willed such as are in authority to be careful thereof, and to devise some good order for their relief, wherein I think you mean me, for I am the first that must make answer to God for my negligence, if I should not be careful therein, knowing it to be the express command of Almighty God to have compassion of his poor and needy members, for whom we must make account unto him. And truly, my lord, I am before all things else most willing to travail that way; and I, doubting nothing of your*

long and approved wisdom and learning, who having such good zeal as wisheth help unto them, but also that you have had some conference with others what ways are best to be taken therein, the which I am desirous to understand, and therefore I pray you to say your mind.'

"The bishop was so amazed and astonished at the goodness and earnest zeal of the king, that he could not tell what to say: but, after some pause, advised him to begin with the city of London; and requested the king to direct his gracious letters to the lord mayor, to consult with such assistants as he thought fit on what might best be done, the bishop promising to assist them in their deliberations.

"To this the king agreed, but made the bishop wait till the letter was written, which having signed and sealed, he gave it to the bishop, desiring him to make all convenient speed, and to let him know the result as early as possible. The bishop the same night delivered the king's letter to the then mayor, Sir Richard Dobbs, Knight; who the next day sent for two aldermen and six commoners, which were afterwards increased to twenty-four, who, with the good bishop, after various consultations, composed a book on the state of the poor in London.

"This book was presented to the king, who immediately founded the three royal hospitals. For the maintenance of Christ's Hospital, he gave some lands of the value of 600*l.* per annum, which had been given to the Savoy, a house founded by Henry VII. for the lodging of pilgrims and strangers, but had declined from its original intention, and had become the resort of vagabonds, who strolled about the fields all day, and were harboured there at night. And for a further relief, a

petition being presented to the king for a licence to take in mortmain lands to a certain yearly value, he ordered the patent to be brought to him, and with his own hand filled the blank space with 4000 *marks by the year;* and then said, in the hearing of his council, '*Lord, I yield thee most hearty thanks, that thou hast given me life thus long to finish this work to the glory of thy name.*'"

In two days after this excellent youth expired, in the sixteenth year of his age and the seventh of his reign, not without suspicion of his end being hastened by the ambitious Northumberland.

"All the English historians dwell with pleasure on the excellent qualities of this young prince. The flattering promises of hope, joined to many real virtues, made him an object of tender affection to the public: he possessed mildness of disposition, application to study and business, a capacity to learn and judge, and an attachment to equity and justice."—HUME.

Christ's Hospital, Bridewell, and St. Thomas the Apostle in Southwark, are incorporated by the name of, "*The Mayor, Commonalty, and Citizens of the City of London, Governors of the Possessions, Revenues, and Goods of the Hospitals of Edward VI. King of England.*"

It was not till the year 1552, five years after the king's grant, that the house of the Grey Friars was fitted up for the reception of the children: they completed it in the same year, and called it Christ's Hospital; and in September, they took in near four hundred orphans, and clothed them in *russet;* but ever after they wore blue cloth coats, their present habit, which consists of a blue cloth coat, close to the body, having petticoat skirts

to the ancle, yellow under-petticoat, yellow stockings, and a flat round worsted cap: their shoes are tied with strings, from the quantity of which the various classes are distinguishable. In addition to this catalogue of their dress, they have of late years added a pair of breeches made of ticken, for which indulgence the boys gave up their meat suppers, to which they were before entitled, and have bread and cheese instead. Their fare is plain and wholesome, and they sleep in wards kept in a very clean state. There are at present about one thousand boys on this establishment, distributed into thirteen wards. The governors have established a school at Hertford, to which they send the youngest of the children, generally to the number of three hundred, who are taken into the house as room is made by apprenticing off the elder. It is between thirty and forty years since the girls were removed from London to be wholly educated at Hertford: all the girls are educated at this school.

At the instigation of Sir Robert Clayton, lord mayor, who was a great benefactor, Charles II. founded the mathematical school, to which he granted 7000*l.* to be paid out of a certain fund at 500*l.* per annum, for the educating forty boys for the sea: of these boys, ten are yearly put out apprentices to merchant vessels, and in their places ten more received.

Another mathematical school, for thirty-seven other boys, was afterwards founded by Mr. Travers; but these boys are not obliged to go to sea. Many able mathematicians and seamen have sprung from these institutions.

The hospital being nearly destroyed by the fire of London, the greater part was rebuilt under the direction of Sir Christopher Wren. The writing school was founded in 1694, by Sir John

Moor, alderman, who is honoured with a statue in front of the building. It is altogether a very extensive building, consisting of many irregular parts; the south front, adjoining Newgate-street, is perhaps the best. The cloisters, the only remains of the conventual house, serve for a thoroughfare, and for a place for the boys to play in. The great hall, a spacious and noble room, was built, after the fire of London, at the sole charge of Sir Joshua Frederic, alderman of London, and cost him 5000*l.*: it is 130 feet long, 34 wide, and 44 in height. In this hall is an extraordinary large picture, by *Verrio*, of King *James* II. amidst his courtiers, receiving the president of this hospital, several of the governors, and numbers of the children, all kneeling: one of the governors, with a grey head, and some of the children, are admirably painted. The history of this picture is curious: it was intended to have represented *Charles* II. who founded the mathematical school; but he dying while the picture was in hand, *James*, who never did any thing for the charity, had his own portrait introduced, together with that of the execrable *Jefferies*, then lord chancellor: Verrio has introduced his own portrait in a long wig. The founder is represented in another picture giving the charter to the governors, who are in their red gowns kneeling; the boys and girls are ranged in two rows: a bishop, probably Ridley,* is in the picture. If this was the work of Holbein, it has certainly been much injured by repair. There is also a fine picture of

* So dreadful is the rage of religious persecution, that even this benevolent and virtuous prelate could not escape its fury: he was burnt for heresy at Oxford, together with *Latimer*, bishop of Worcester, by order of *Mary*, 1555.

Charles II. in his robes, with a great flowing black wig: at a distance is a sea view, with shipping; and about him a globe, sphere, telescope, &c.: it was painted by Sir Peter Lely, in 1662.

In this hall the children are daily assembled to their meals: prayers are read by one of the senior boys, and hymns are sung by the children, for which purpose it is furnished with a pulpit; and an organ is played during the time of supper. These public suppers commence the first Sunday after Christmas, and end on Easter Sunday: the time of supping is from six o'clock till half past seven.

The following order has been recently hung up near the entrance of the hall:

PUBLIC SUPPERS.

"*Ordered*, That no person be admitted within the great hall unless introduced by a governor."

But the grand anniversary held in this hall is on St. Matthew's day, an account of which accompanies the print.

In the court-room is a three-quarters length of Edward VI. a most beautiful portrait, and indisputably by Holbein.

In this room are also the portraits of two great benefactors to this hospital, and persons of the most enlarged and general benevolence, Sir Wolstan Dixie, lord mayor of London 1585, and Dame Mary Ramsay, wife of Sir Thomas Ramsay, lord mayor 1557.

In a room entirely lined with stone, are kept the records, deeds, and other writings of the hospital. One of the books is a curious piece of antiquity; it is the earliest record of the

hospital, and contains the anthem sung by the first children, very beautifully illuminated.

The writing school is a handsome modern building of brick, supported by pillars, forming a spacious covered walk.

The grammar school is a plain brick building, more recently erected.

The permanent revenues of Christ's Hospital are great, from royal and private donations in houses and lands; but without voluntary subscriptions they are inadequate to the present establishment.

By the grant of the city, the governors license the carts allowed to ply in the city, to the number of two hundred and forty, who pay a small sum for this privilege. They also receive a duty of about three farthings upon every piece of cloth brought to Blackwell Hall, granted by acts of common council.

The expenditure of this hospital is immense, being at present about 30,000*l.* per annum.

The governors, who choose their own officers and servants, are unlimited in their number. A donation of 400*l.* makes a governor: formerly the sum was less, but the office of governor being one of great trust, and of serious importance in its effect to the public, an enlargement of the sum was wisely adopted.

The governors of Christ's Hospital have been made trustees to several other extensive charities by their founders. Among these charities, there is one of 10*l.* each, for life, to four hundred blind men. This ought to be known, because these funds have been often confounded with those of Christ's Hospital, which they do not in the least augment, the governors not being at liberty to apply such funds to any of the uses of the hospital.

The greater part of the buildings belonging to this noble institution being through age in a state of irreparable decay, the governors have lately resolved to rebuild the whole upon a plan of uniformity and magnificence.

The present officers of Christ's Hospital are,

President, Sir John William Anderson, Bart. Alderman.
Treasurer, James Palmer, Esq.
Physician, Richard Budd, M.D.
Surgeon, Thomas Ramsden, Esq.
Apothecary, Mr. Henry Field.
Chief Clerk, Richard Corp, Esq.
Receiver, Mr. Thomas Whilby.
Assistant clerks, Mr. Matthew Cotton and Mr. James White.
Grammar master, Rev. Arthur William Trollop, M.A.
Under grammar master, Rev. L. P. Stephens, M.A.
Master of the reading school, Ralph Peacock, M.A.
Master of the mathematics, Mr. Lawrence Gwynne.
Master of the mathematics on Mr. Travers's foundation, Rev. Thomas Edwards, M.A.
Writing masters, Mr. J. Allen and Mr. T. Goddard.
Drawing master, Mr. John Wells.*
Music master, Mr. Robert Hudson.
Steward, Mr. Matthew Hathaway.

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* About the year 1721, a drawing master was added to the establishment: Mr. Bernard Lens was the first; to him succeeded the late Mr. Green; the present gentleman is the third who has held the office.

AT HERTFORD.

Grammar master and catechist, Rev. F. W. Franklin, M.A.
Steward and upper writing master, Mr. Benjamin Flude.
Second writing master, Mr. Henry Rix Whittel.
Surgeon and apothecary, Mr. Colbeck.
Matron, Mrs. Royd.
Girls' schoolmistress, Mrs. Ann Sparrow.
Second ditto, Miss Eliza Payne.

On the admission of a governor, the following serious and impressive charge is solemnly given him, in the presence of the president, or treasurer, and other governors assembled in court:

"*Worshipful!*

"The cause of your repair hither at this present is, to give you knowledge, that you are elected and appointed by the lord mayor and court of aldermen, to the office, charge, and governance of *Christ's Hospital.*

"And, therefore, this is to require you and every of you, that you endeavour yourselves, with all your wisdom and power, faithfully and diligently to serve in this vocation and calling, which is an office of high trust and worship: for ye are called to be the faithful distributors and disposers of the goods of Almighty God to his poor and needy members; in the which office and calling if ye shall be found negligent and unfaithful, ye shall not only declare yourselves to be the most unthankful and unworthy servants of Almighty God, being put in trust to see the relief and succour of his poor and needy flock; but also ye shall shew yourselves to be very notable and great enemies

to that work, which most highly doth advance and beautify the commonwealth of this realm, and chiefly of the city of *London*.

"These, therefore, are to require you, and every of you, that ye here promise, before God and this assembly of your fellow-governors, faithfully to travail in this your office and calling, that this work may have his perfection, and that the needy number committed to your charge be diligently and wholesomely provided for, as you will answer before God at the hour and time when you and we shall stand before him, to render an account of our doings. And this promising to do, you shall be now admitted into this company and fellowship."

BOW-STREET OFFICE

THE annexed print gives an accurate representation of this celebrated office at the time of an examination: the characters are marked with much strength and humour, and the general effect broad and simple.

This office has the largest jurisdiction of any in the metropolis, its authority extending to every part of his majesty's dominions, except the *city of London*, which is governed by its own magistrates.

Bow-street is, in a peculiar sense, the government office, besides acting as a police office in concert with the others, whose power extends only within a certain district. The police of this country has hitherto been very imperfect: the celebrated Henry Fielding was the first, who, by his abilities, contributed to the security of the public, by the detection and prevention of crimes. In August 1753, while a Bow-street magistrate, he was sent for by the Duke of Newcastle, on account of the number of street-robberies and murders committed nightly, and desired by the duke to form some plan for the detection and dispersion of the dreadful gangs of robbers by whom they were committed. Fielding wrote a plan, and offered to clear the streets of them, if he might have 600*l.* at his own disposal. The duke approved of his plan; and in a few days after he had received 200*l.* of the

money, the whole gang was entirely dispersed; seven of them were in actual custody, and the rest driven, some out of town, and others out of the kingdom; and so fully had his plan succeeded, that in the entire freedom from street-robberies and murders, the winter of 1753 stands unrivalled during a course of many years. At this time the only profit arising to the magistrate was from the fees of his office: of the profits arising from these sources, however, Fielding had no very high opinion; after complaining that his maladies were much increased by his unremitted attention to his public duties, and having at that time a jaundice, a dropsy, and an asthma, he retired into the country, and from thence went to Lisbon, where he died. The following extract presents an agreeable specimen of that lively writer, still animated in all his sufferings, and it also gives a correct idea of the business of an active and upright magistrate at that time.

Fielding had been advised to try the Bath waters, but in consequence of the message from the Duke of Newcastle, and his exertions to free the metropolis from the desperate gangs of villains that infested it, his health considerably declined, and his was no longer a case in which the Bath waters are considered efficacious. The following account of himself and his office is from his *Voyage to Lisbon:*

"I had vanity enough to rank myself with those heroes of old times, who became voluntary sacrifices to the good of the public. But lest the reader should be too eager to catch at the word *vanity*, I will frankly own, that I had a stronger motive than the love of the public to push me on: I will therefore confess to him, that my private affairs, at the beginning of the winter, had but

a gloomy appearance; for I had not plundered the public or the poor of those sums which men who are always ready to plunder both of as much as they can, have been pleased to suspect me of taking; on the contrary, by composing the quarrels of porters and beggars, which I blush to say hath not been universally practised, and by refusing to take a shilling from a man who most undoubtedly would not have had another left, I had reduced an income of about 500*l.** a year of the dirtiest money upon earth, to little more than 300*l.* an inconsiderable proportion of which remained with my clerk; and indeed if the whole had done so, as it ought, he would have been ill paid for sitting sixteen hours in the twenty-four in the most unwholesome as well as nauseous air in the universe."

That this was the practice of Fielding, there can be no doubt: but that the conduct of some other justices was very flagrant, is equally indisputable; and the memory of the trading justices

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* "A predecessor of mine used to boast, that he made 1000*l.* a year in his office; but how he did it, is to me a secret. His clerk, now mine, told me I had had more business than he had ever known there; I am sure I had as much as any man could do. The truth is, that the fees are so very low, when any are due, and so much is done for nothing, that if a single justice of the peace had business enough to employ twenty clerks, neither he nor they would get much by their labour. The public will not therefore, I hope, think I betray a secret when I inform them, that I received from government a yearly pension out of the public service money; which I believe indeed would have been larger, had my great patron been convinced of an error which I have heard him utter more than once:—that he could not indeed say that the acting as a principal justice in Westminster was on all accounts very desirable, but that all the world knew it was a very lucrative office. Now to have shewn him plainly, that a man must be a rogue to make a very little this way, and that he could not make much by being as great a rogue as he could be, would have required more confidence than I believe he had in me, and more of his conversation than he chose to allow me; I therefore resigned the office, and the farther execution of my plan, to my brother."

of Westminster, and Clerkenwell in particular, are handed down with abhorrence and contempt.

To Henry Fielding succeeded his brother, Sir John, who was many years an able and active magistrate.

Patrick Colquhoun, Esq. in his excellent work on the *Police*, exposed the defects of the system, and the necessity of a reform. It was taken into consideration by Parliament, and in 1792 an act was passed for that purpose, which established seven offices, besides Bow-street and the Marine Police; settled salaries were appointed to the magistrates, and the fees and penalties of the whole paid into the hands of a receiver, to make a fund for the paying these salaries and other incidental expences. This act of the 32d Geo. III. was amended by an act of the 37th, and by another of the 42d.

The present magistrates of Bow-street Office, 1808, are,

James Reed, Esq..... £1000 per annum.

Aaron Graham, Esq. 500

John Nares, Esq. 500

Three clerks and eight officers.

It is impossible to make many extracts from Mr. Colquhoun's valuable book. It is the basis of his system, that the numerous tribes of receivers in this metropolis are the great cause of the vice and immorality so widely prevalent, by the easy mode they hold out to the pilferer of disposing of what he has stolen, without his being asked any questions. There are upwards of three thousand receivers of stolen goods in the metro-

polis alone, and a proportionate number dispersed all over the kingdom.

Impressed with a deep sense of the utility of investigating the nature of the police system, the select committee of the House of Commons on finance, turned their attention to this, among many other important objects, in the session of the year 1798; and after a laborious investigation, during which Mr. *Colquhoun* was many times personally examined, they made their final report; in which they recommended it to Parliament to establish funds, to be placed under the direction of the receiver-general of the police offices, and a competent number of commissioners: these funds to arise from the licensing of hawkers and pedlars, and hackney coaches, together with other licence duties proposed, fees, penalties, &c.; their payments subject to the approbation of the lords commissioners of the Treasury: the police magistrates to be empowered to make bye-laws, for the regulation of the minor objects of the police, such as relate to the controul of all coaches, carts, drivers, &c. and the removal of all annoyances, &c. subject to the approbation of the *judges*.

They recommended also the establishment of two additional police offices in the city of London, but not without the consent of the lord mayor, aldermen, and common council being previously obtained; and their authority to extend over the four counties of Middlesex, Kent, Essex, and Surry; and that of the other eight offices over the whole metropolis and the four counties also.

"It is proposed to appoint counsel for the crown, with moderate salaries, to conduct all criminal prosecutions.

"The keeping a register of the various lodging-houses.

"The establishment of a police gazette,* to be circulated at a low price, and furnished gratis to all persons under the superintendence of the board, who shall pay a licence duty to a certain amount."

The two leading objects in the report are,

1st. The prevention of crimes and misdemeanours by bringing under regulations a variety of dangerous and suspicious trades,† the uncontrouled exercise of which by persons of loose conduct, is known to contribute in a very high degree to the concealment, and by that means, to the encouragement and multiplication of crimes.

2d. To raise a moderate revenue for police purposes from the persons who shall be thus controuled, by means of licence duties and otherwise, so managed as not to become a material burden; while a confident hope is entertained, that the amount of this revenue will go a considerable length in relieving the finances of the country of the expences at present incurred for objects of police; and that in the effect of the general system a consider-

* This paper is called *The Public Hue and Cry*, a police gazette, published every third Saturday in the month, at No. 240, Strand, and sent to the principal magistrates gratis.

† The trades alluded to are the following:

1. Wholesale and retail dealers in naval stores, hand-stuff, and rags.
2. Dealers in old iron and other metals.
3. Dealers in second-hand wearing apparel, stationary and itinerant.
4. Founders and others using crucibles.
5. Persons using draught and truck carts for conveying stores, rags, and metals.
6. Persons licensed to slaughter horses.
7. Persons keeping livery stables and letting horses for hire.
8. Auctioneers who hold periodical or diurnal sales.

The new revenues are estimated to yield 64,000*l.* The increase of the existing evenues is stated at 19,467*l.* Total, 83,467*l.*

able saving will arise, in consequence of the expected diminution of crimes, particularly as the chief part of the expence appears to arise after the delinquents are convicted.*

As the leading feature of the report is the security of the *rights of the innocent* with respect to their life, property, and convenience, this will not only be effected by increasing the difficulty of perpetrating offences, through a controul over those trades by which they are facilitated and promoted; but also by adding to the risk of detection, by a more prompt and certain mode of discovery wherever crimes are committed. Thus must the idle and profligate be compelled to assist the state by resorting to habits of industry, while the more incorrigible delinquents will be intimidated and deterred from pursuing a course of turpitude and criminality, which the energy of the police will render too hazardous and unprofitable to be followed as a trade; and the regular accession of numbers to recruit and strengthen the hordes of criminal delinquents who at present infest society, will be in a great measure prevented.

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* The amount of the general expence of the criminal police of the kingdom, is stated by the committee as follows:

1st. The annual average of the total expence of the seven public offices in the metropolis, from the institution in August 1792, to the end of the year 1797	£18,281	18	6
2d. Total expence of the office in Bow-street in the year 1797, including remunerations to the magistrates in lieu of fees, perquisites, &c. and the expence of a patrol of sixty-eight persons	7,901	7	7
Total for the metropolis	26,183	6	1
The other expences incurred for the prosecution and conviction of felons, the maintenance, clothing, employment, and transportation of convicts, to which may be added the farther sums annually charged on the county rates, amounted in 1797 to	215,869	13	10½

Of the vigilance of the French system of police just before the Revolution, Mr. Colquhoun speaks highly. This system, which though neither necessary nor even proper to be copied as a *pattern*, might nevertheless furnish many useful hints, calculated to improve ours, and perfectly consistent with the existing laws; it might even extend and increase the *liberty of the subject*, without taking one privilege away, or interfering in the pursuits of any one class, except those employed in purposes of *mischief, fraud, and criminality.*

An anecdote related, on the authority of a foreign minister long resident at Paris, by Mr. C. will give a good idea of the secrecy of their system.

"A merchant of high respectability in Bourdeaux, had occasion to visit the metropolis upon commercial concerns, carrying with him bills and money to a very large amount.

"On his arrival at the gates of Paris, a genteel-looking man opened the door of his carriage, and addressed him to this effect:—'*Sir, I have been waiting for you some time: according to my notes, you were to arrive at this hour; and your person, your carriage, and your portmanteau, exactly answering the description I hold in my hand, you will permit me to have the honour of conducting you to Monsieur de Sartine.*'

"The gentleman, astonished and alarmed at this interruption, and still more so at hearing the name of the lieutenant of the police mentioned, demanded to know what M. *de Sartine* wanted with him; adding, at the same time, that he never had committed any offence against the laws, and that they could have no right to interrupt and detain him.

"The messenger declared himself perfectly ignorant of the

cause of this detention; stating, at the same time, that when he had conducted him to M. *de Sartine*, he should have executed his orders, which were merely official.

"After some further explanations, the gentleman permitted the officer to conduct him to M. de Sartine, who received him with great politeness, and requesting him to be seated, to his great astonishment, described his portmanteau, and told him the exact sum in bills and specie which he had brought to Paris, where he was to lodge, his usual time of going to bed, and a number of other circumstances, which the gentleman had conceived could only be known to himself.

"M. de Sartine having thus excited attention, put this extraordinary question to him—'*Sir, are you a man of courage?*' The gentleman, still more astonished at the singularity of such an interrogatory, demanded the reason why he put such a strange question; adding, at the same time, that no man ever doubted his courage. M. *de Sartine* replied, '*Sir, you are to be robbed and murdered this night! If you are a man of courage, you must go to your hotel, and retire to rest at the usual hour; but be careful that you do not fall asleep; neither will it be proper for you to look under your bed, or into any of the closets which are in your bedchamber: you must place your portmanteau in its usual situation near your bed, and discover no suspicion:—leave what remains to me. If, however, you do not feel your courage sufficient to bear you out, I will procure a person who shall personate you, and go to bed in your stead.*'

"The gentleman being convinced, in the course of the conversation, that M. de Sartine's intelligence was accurate in every particular, refused to be personated, and formed an immediate

resolution literally to follow the directions he had received. He accordingly went to bed at his usual hour, which was eleven o'clock: at half past twelve (the time mentioned by M. *de Sartine*), the door of the bedchamber was burst open, and three men entered with a *dark lantern, daggers, and pistols.* The gentleman, who was awake, perceived one of them to be his own servant. They rifled his portmanteau undisturbed, and settled the plan of putting him to death. The gentleman, hearing all this, and not knowing by what means he was to be rescued, it may naturally be supposed was under great perturbation of mind during this awful interval; but at the moment the villains were prepared to commit the murder, four police officers, acting under M. *de Sartine's* orders, who were concealed under the bed and in the closet, rushed out and seized the offenders with the property in their possession, and in the act of preparing to complete their plan."

BRIDEWELL

THE annexed print gives an accurate and interesting view of this abode of wretchedness, the PASS-ROOM. It was provided by a late act of Parliament, that *paupers*, claiming settlements in distant parts of the kingdom, should be confined for seven days previous to their being sent off to their respective parishes; and this is the room appointed by the magistracy of the city for one class of miserable females. The characters are finely varied, the general effect broad and simple, and the perspective natural and easy.

Bridewell, as early as King John, was a royal palace, formed partly out of the remains of an ancient castle, the western *Arx Palatina* of the city, and the residence of several of our monarchs; but in process of time became neglected: till, in 1522, Henry VIII. rebuilt it in a most magnificent manner, for the reception of the Emperor Charles V. who in that year paid him a visit: Charles was, however, lodged in *Black Friars*, and his suite in the new palace. A gallery of communication was thrown over Fleet-Ditch, and a passage cut through the city wall to the emperor's apartments. Henry often lodged here, particularly in 1529, when the question of his marriage with Queen Catherine was agitated in *Black Friars*. It fell afterwards to decay, and was begged by the pious Prelate Ridley from

Pugin & Rowlandson del. et sculpt

PASS-ROOM, BRIDEWELL.

Edward VI. to be converted to some charitable purpose: that of a house of correction for vagabonds of each sex and all denominations was determined on. It also answers another purpose; it is a foundation for youth who are bound apprentices to different trades under what are called ARTS-MASTERS*; and forms part of the great plan of benevolence adopted by the amiable Edward VI. when he endowed the *city hospitals*, of which this is one. It is situated in BRIDGE-STREET, BLACK FRIARS, and gives the name to Bridewell precinct in the neighbourhood; the whole building forms a square, consisting of the houses of the arts-masters, who are six in number, the prisons for the men and women, the committee-room, and a chapel.

The men's prison is a good brick building, on the western side, consisting of thirty-six sleeping-rooms, and seven other apartments. Every man has a room to himself, containing a bedstead, straw in a sacking, a blanket, and coverlet. The other rooms consist of workshops, a sick-room, which is a very comfortable apartment, and a larger, in which idle apprentices are confined separate from the other prisoners. In the working-room are junk and oakum, which the prisoners pick, and mills where they grind corn. The task-master's apartments, and the women's prison, which is separate from the men's, are on this western side. The committee-room is on the south side, where a committee of the governors meet every week to examine the prisoners. There are excellent regulations to this prison: in the cellar is a bath, in

* These arts-masters were originally decayed tradesmen, and consisted of shoemakers, taylors, flax-dressers, orris and silk-weavers, &c. The apprentices used to be distinguished by a blue jacket and trowsers, and a white hat: their dress is now in the form of other people's, distinguished only by a button bearing the head of the founder.

which the prisoners are occasionally washed; but there is no yard for them to walk in, which is a great defect in any house of this description.

The original plan of this hospital, combined and incorporated with the hospitals of Christ and St. Thomas, was so benevolent, and of such comprehensive utility, that it is worthy to be followed, improved, and completely executed, by the wisest and best of men, in the wisest and best of times. It was to "train up the beggar's child to virtuous industry, so that from him no more beggars should spring; to succour the aged and the diseased; to relieve the decayed housekeeper and the indigent; and to compel the wretched street-walker and the vagabond to honest labour." Its design was, to include every class of the unfortunate, the helpless, and the depraved. To effect this, the governors were instituted, and are, as a body corporate, empowered to make "*all manner of wholesome and honest ordinances, statutes, and rules, for the good government of the poor in Bridewell.*" Many very important alterations have taken place in this hospital within the last century, particularly in the years 1792 and 1793. Pennant, whose account of London was published in 1793, states the number of arts-masters at twenty; they are now reduced to six. The number of apprentices taught and maintained, he does not state; in the year 1717, they amounted to one hundred and three received within the year, and in 1718, to ninety-four.—*Vide* SPEED. The apprentices are now reduced to thirty.

The late improvements in the buildings at Bridewell have been very great. The entrance is by a very noble front, of the Doric order; on the key-stone of the arch is a head of the illustrious founder. The apartments in this center are destined for the

residence of the chamberlain of the city of London, who is also treasurer. Adjoining this building are six new houses, corresponding with the other houses in Bridge-street, the back parts of which occupy what was before a court-yard, in which resided several of the arts-masters. A new chapel, and a very noble apartment called the committee-room, complete the improvements on the eastern and principal side. On the north have been some alterations. The male prisoners are removed to a new building erected on the western side; and the arts-masters, who lived on that site, are removed to houses erected for them on the north side.

The court-room is an interesting piece of antiquity, as on its site were held courts of justice, and probably *parliaments*, under our early kings. At the upper end are the old arms of England; and it is wainscotted to a certain height with English oak, ornamented with carved work. This oak was formerly of that solemn colour which it attains by age, and was relieved by the carving being gilt. It must have been no small effort of *ingenuity* to destroy at one stroke all this venerable time-honoured grandeur: it was, however, *happily* achieved by daubing over with paint the fine veins and polish of the old oak, to make a very bad imitation of the pale modern wainscot; and other decorations are added in a similar *taste*.

On the upper part of the wall are the names, in gold letters, of benefactors to the hospital: the dates commence with 1565 and end with 1713. This is said to have been the court in which the sentence of divorce was pronounced against Catherine of Arragon, which had been concluded on in the opposite monastery of the Black Friars.

From this room is the entrance into the hall, which is a very noble one: at the upper end is a picture, by Holbein, representing Edward VI. delivering the charter of the hospital to Sir George Barnes, then lord mayor; near him are William, Earl of Pembroke, and Thomas Goodrich, Bishop of Ely. There are ten figures in the picture, besides the king, whose portrait is painted with great truth and feeling: it displays all that languor and debility which mark an approaching dissolution, and which unhappily followed so soon after, together with that of the painter, that it has been sometimes doubted whether the picture was really painted by Holbein: his portrait, however, is introduced; it is the furthest figure in the corner on the right hand, looking over the shoulders of the persons before him.

On one side of this picture is a portrait of Charles II. sitting, and on the other that of James II. standing; they are both painted by Sir Peter Lely. Round the room are several portraits of the presidents and different benefactors, ending with that of Sir Richard Carr Glyn. The walls of this room are covered with the names of those who have been friends to the institution, written in letters of gold.

The new committee-room is finely proportioned, and in a very good style of architecture; as is the new chapel, which is divided from it by the portico, and which together occupy the whole back front of the eastern range of buildings.

The following is a list of the present officers of this hospital and Bethlem, founded by *Edward* VI. 1553:

President of both Hospitals, Sir Richard Carr Glyn, Bart. Alderman.

Treasurer to ditto, Richard Clark, Esq. Chamberlain of the city of London.

Chaplain at Bridewell, Rev. Henry Budd, B.A.

Physician to both, Thomas Munro, M.D.

Surgeon to ditto, Bryan Crowther, Esq.

Apothecary to ditto, Mr. John Haslam.

Clerk to ditto, Mr. John Poynder.

Steward to Bridewell, accomptant and receiver to both, Mr. Bolton Hudson.

Porter to Bridewell, Richard Weaver.

Matron to ditto, Mary Rundle.

THE BRITISH INSTITUTION,

FOR PROMOTING THE FINE ARTS IN THE UNITED KINGDOM

FOUNDED JUNE 4, 1805—OPENED JANUARY 18, 1806

The King's Most Excellent Majesty, Patron.
His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales, Vice-Patron.
The Earl of Dartmouth, President.

THE avowed purpose of this excellent Institution was, to give to the painters a facility in selling their works, and to form a school of painting for the rising generation, by furnishing exemplars by the old masters, from the collections of the nobility and gentry who formed and supported the plan.

At a meeting of subscribers of fifty guineas or upwards, in June 1805,

PRESENT,

The Earl of Dartmouth in the chair,

VICE-PRESIDENTS,

The Marquis of Abercorn,	John Egerton, Esq.	Samuel Lysons, Esq.
Sir Francis Baring, Bart.	William Fitzhugh, Esq. M.P.	P. Metcalf, Esq. M.P.
Sir George Beaumont, Bart.	Sir A. Hume, Bart.	W. Morland, Esq. M.P.
Right Hon. Isaac Corry, M.P.	Henry Hope, Esq.	Lord Somerville,
Thomas Bernard, Esq.	Thomas Hope, Esq.	W. Smith, Esq., M.P.
Lord de Dunstanville,	Lord Viscount Lowther,	Richard Troward, Esq.
Charles Duncombe, Esq. M.P.	E. L. Loveden, Esq.	Caleb Whitefoord, Esq.

After resolving that the Earl of Dartmouth be desired to wait on the Prince of Wales, to request that his royal highness will do the Institution the honour of accepting the situation of vice-patron,—It was ordered that a select committee be authorized to purchase or hire a place for the exhibition. Their choice fell on the Shakespeare Gallery, Pall-Mall, which, in the preceding January, had become the property of Mr. Tassie, from his possessing the fortunate ticket in Alderman Boydell's lottery; and from Mr. Tassie they purchased the premises, and remaining sixty-three years of the lease, for 5500*l.*

On the 18th of January, 1806, it was opened with an exhibition of the works of British artists on sale: they sold forty-eight pictures, which produced 2800*l.* The exhibition closed about the time that the Royal Academy opens; and during this summer the gallery was furnished with many fine pictures by the old masters, from the collections of the founders of the Institution, in order to form a British School of Painting, which had so long been a desideratum. Benjamin West, Esq. P.R.A. wishing to give it some *éclat*, copied a picture by Vandyke of Govastius, and the *Cradle Scene* from Rembrandt. It was attended by many pupils of both sexes.

In the ensuing spring the exhibition again commenced; and before it closed, ninety-three pictures were sold for 3950*l.*

The following season the gallery was again opened to the students, but upon a different plan. It had been suggested by Sir Joshua Reynolds, in one of his lectures, that to take a fine picture by one of the old masters, and paint a companion to it, was a preferable mode of study to that of cold laborious copying: under this idea, the British Institution offered three

prizes of 100*l.* 60*l.* and 40*l.* for the three best pictures painted as companions to such of the old masters as the artists chose.

The annexed print is a representation of the gallery at the time these students are at work.

The first premium given by the institution, anno 1807, was gained by Mr. J. Pocock. The subject is, The insolent Visit of Thomas à Becket to King Henry the Second, A.D. 1164; painted as a companion to Vandyke's Theodosius, in the collection of Mr. Angerstein.

The second premium was given to Mr. James Green, for his picture of Gadshill and the Carriers; painted as a companion to The Candlelight, by Rubens, in the possession of Mr. Duncombe.

The third premium was given to Miss C. Reinagle—The Interior of a Wood, with Banditti; painted as a companion to Mercury and Admetus, by Salvator Rosa, in the collection of Lord Grantham.

From so fine a school of art, where British genius is countenanced by so liberal an encouragement, what may we not expect? The present sale bids fair to exceed the two former. One of the regulations of the British Institution may be sufficient to give a general idea of the nature of the works admitted.

"Artists who are natives of, or resident in, the United Kingdom, may be exhibitors in the British Gallery; and their works, if originals, and their own property, will be received therein for exhibition and sale; such works being either historical subjects or landscapes painted in oil, statues, basso-relievos, or models in sculpture. But portraits, whether in large or in miniature, drawings in water colours, and architectural drawings, are inadmissible."

THE HALL *and* STAIR CASE.
BRITISH MUSEUM

The artists pay towards the fund two and a half per cent. on those pictures which are sold; and they have since gratuitously added another two and a half per cent. to Mr. V. Green, the keeper; a very proper compliment to his unremitting attention and gentlemanly conduct in his office.

The annexed print gives a correct and interesting view of this very fine *suite* of rooms, and the figures have great spirit and appropriate character.

THE BRITISH MUSEUM

THE annexed print is a view of the grand staircase, taken from the first landing-place, and has a magnificence becoming the residence of a nobleman: it is drawn with great taste and knowledge; the figures are judiciously introduced, and relieve the eye from the unvarying lines of perspective, and the whole presents a *coup d'œil* that fills and satisfies the mind.

Montague House was rebuilt for Ralph, Duke of Montague, at the expence of Louis XIV. King of France, in 1678,* by Pouget.

* The Duke of Montague was at that time at the court of France, when receiving intelligence that his house was destroyed by fire, his spirits became greatly depressed, which induced Louis XIV. to send artists to London, to repair the losses the noble duke had sustained.

Walpole observes of it, that "*what is wanted in beauty, is compensated by the spacious and lofty magnificence of the apartments.*" How far this observation is founded in truth, must be in some degree determined by the taste of the reader. The principal parts of the house are decorated by three painters, the historical and allegorical parts by *La Fosse*, landscapes by *Rousseau*, and flowers by *Jean Baptist Monoyer*. The union of these discordant styles produces a kind of garish splendour, which, with the heavy carved and gilt furniture of that day, must have had a large portion of cumbrous magnificence.

The British Museum was established in the year 1753, in consequence of *Sir Hans Sloane* bequeathing his valuable collection and library, which cost him 50,000*l.* to Parliament, on condition that they paid his executors 20,000*l.* for it. The money was raised the same year, by a guinea lottery.

In 1756, the valuable legacy of Egyptian antiquities collected by the late Colonel Lethulier, together with that of his nephew, were added to it.

The Harleian MSS. collected by Lord Oxford's family, were purchased for 10,000*l.*; a collection of books, and also 7000*l.* in cash, left by Major Edwards: in addition to the Cottonian, is the library of Mr. Maddox, historiographer to his majesty, given by his widow.

In 1757, George II. gave the royal library, which consists of about ten thousand books, with eighteen hundred MSS. all collected by the different kings of England. The *Cracherode* collection has also been since added.

In 1772, by a vote of the House of Commons for the purchase of Sir William Hamilton's collection of Etruscan, Grecian, and

Roman antiquities, the sum of 8410*l.* was granted, and 840*l.* to the trustees to provide a repository for them. In 1804, a grant of 8000*l.* was voted towards an additional building for the reception of the Egyptian antiquities brought over by the expedition under Sir Ralph Abercrombie; and in 1805, a further grant of 8000*l.* for the same purpose.

In 1805, a grant of 20,000*l.* was voted for the purchase of the Townleian collection of Greek and Roman antiquities.

A collection of MSS. which were in the possession of the late Marquis of Lansdown, has been purchased for 4800*l.*

It is impossible in our limits to convey an adequate idea of the immensity of this collection; we shall, therefore, merely give a cursory glance at the general contents of the apartments in the order they are shewn to visitors.

The first room contains a vast number of curiosities brought by Captains Cook, Byron, &c. from New Zealand, Otaheite, the Friendly and Sandwich Islands, western coast of California, &c.; consisting of dresses, weapons, canoes, fishing tackle, idols, and a variety of matters, remarkable for their ingenuity and exquisite taste.

Second room is a miscellaneous collection of the Harleian curiosities: there are two mummies, various models of works of art, weapons of the ancient Britons, Mexican idols, Chinese and Indian models, &c. and the celebrated portrait of Oliver Cromwell by Cooper.

Third room contains the Lansdown collection.

Fourth room, MSS. Sloaniana.

Fifth, Harleian library: a very curious inscription taken from the breast of a mummy; and portraits of Oliver Cromwell,

Charles XII. the Czar Peter, Andrew Marvell, Algernon Sydney, Sir H. Vane, Sir Anthony More, Sir P. P. Rubens, Ben Jonson, and M. S. Merian, celebrated for the exquisite collection of insects painted by her.

Sixth, Harleiana library; containing portraits of Cranmer, Usher, Burleigh, Salisbury, Spelman, Dugdale, Cosmo de Medicis, Duke of Marlborough, Louis XIV. and a beautiful portrait of the unfortunate Duke of Monmouth.

Seventh, The royal library; containing the original *Magna Charta;* the portraits of Edward III. Henry II. Henry V. Henry VI. Countess of Richmond, Henry VIII. Edward VI. Mary, Elizabeth, Mary Queen of Scots, James I. Charles I. Henrietta, Charles II. William III. Speed, Camden, &c.

Eighth, Banqueting-room, contains only a portrait of George II. and a table made of various specimens of lava. In this room the three painters have exerted all their powers of decoration: it gives a perfect idea of the magnificence of that time, but it is heavy and incongruous; there are many good parts, but they do not unite.

Ninth, Sloane and Cracherode collection—volcanic minerals, spars, &c.

Tenth, Sloane and Cracherode—shells and petrifactions.

Eleventh, Sloane—marine productions and reptiles.

Twelfth, Sloane—birds and beasts.

Thirteenth, Fish and serpents.

Fourteenth, On the staircase is a crocodile 21 feet long.

The noble collections of Sir William Hamilton, Mr. Townley, and the Egyptian antiquities, are arranging in the new building, but not yet opened for public inspection.

The present establishment is as follows:

Forty-one trustees, twenty by virtue of their offices, six representing the Sloane, Cotton, and Harleian families, marked *S. C. H.* and fifteen chosen by the former twenty.

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The Lord Chancellor.
Lord President of the Council.
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Lord Privy Seal.
First Lord of the Admiralty.
Lord Steward.
Lord Chamberlain.
Three Secretaries of State.
Bishop of London.
Speaker of the House of Commons.
Chancellor of the Exchequer.
Lord Chief Justice of the King's Bench.
Master of the Rolls.
Lord Chief Justice of the Common Pleas.
Attorney General.
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Duke of Grafton, K.G.
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Marquis Bute.
Bishop of Durham.
Earl of Hardwicke, K.G.
Right Hon. Sir William Scott.
Right Hon. George Rose.
Lord St. Helen's.

Principal librarian, Joseph Planta, Esq.
Librarian of the MSS. department, F. Douce, Esq. and *his assistant*, the Rev. T. Maurice.
Printed books, Henry Ellis, Esq. and the Rev. H. Harvey Baber.
Natural history, Dr. Shaw and Charles Konig, Esq.
Coins and medals, Taylor Combe, Esq.
Secretary, Mr. Edward Bray.

The Museum is open Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays, except Christmas, Easter, and Whitsun-week, on Thanksgiving and Fast-days, and during August and September. Persons wishing admittance are to apply at the anti-room, between the hours of ten and two, and inscribe their names and residence in a book kept there. Five companies of not more than fifteen each are admitted, at ten, eleven, twelve, one, and two o'clock; but there is no necessity for fifteen going in one party, the first fifteen names on the book are admitted together, if they should happen to be all strangers to each other.

The reading-room is open, under certain regulations, from ten till four every day, except Saturdays and Sundays.

N.B. When the new rooms are opened for the inspection of visitors, it is understood that eight companies, instead of five, will be admitted.

Rowlandson & Pugin del. et sculpt.

THE HALL CARLTON HOUSE

CARLTON HOUSE

THE annexed print is a view of the great hall, which is conceived with a classic elegance, that does honour to the genius of the late Mr. Holland, who was the architect of Carlton House. The size of the hall is forty-four feet in length and twenty-nine in breadth. The entrance to the hall from the vestibule is by a flight of steps, which gives it an air of uncommon grandeur; it is supported by eight fine columns of the Ionic order, with architrave, frieze, and cornice. The ceiling is coved, and ornamented with plain caissons, and lighted by a skylight of an oval form. The columns are finely executed in *scaglioni*, of a yellow porphyry; the capitals and bases are bronzed, as are all the ornaments in the hall. In four corresponding niches are casts from the antique, of two Muses, the Antinous and the Discobulus; on the cornice are placed busts, urns, and griffins; over the niches are basso-relievos, which are also bronzed. At each end of the hall is a stove of a new and elegant construction; six Termini of fine workmanship support a dome or canopy: the whole is executed in cast-iron bronzed. Over each fire-place is an allegorical painting in imitation of bronze basso-relievo, and compartments over the doors in the same manner: the *tout-ensemble* is striking and impressive. There is in this hall a symmetry and proportion, a happy adjustment of the parts to produce a whole, that are rarely seen; it is considered as

the *chef d'œuvre* of Mr. Holland, and would do honour to any architect of any age or country. Of the print it may be proper to say, that it is drawn with great accuracy and feeling, the perspective is easy and natural, and the general effect broad and simple. The figures are few, but introduced with great taste: it must be obvious, that a greater number would have impaired the general effect of the architectural design.

The new circular dining-room, when completed, will unquestionably be one of the most splendid apartments in Europe: the walls are entirely covered with silver, on which are painted Etruscan ornaments in relief, with vine-leaves, trellis-work, &c. There are eight fine Ionic columns in *scaglioni*, of red granite; the capitals and bases are silver, as are also the enrichments, moulding, &c. of the architrave, frieze, and cornice: the latter is surmounted by an ornament that is somewhat Turkish in its character, and which, if it does not belong to the Ionic order, nevertheless adds to the splendour of the room. There are four immense pier glasses, and under each of them a fine marble chimney-piece of exquisite workmanship. As this sumptuous apartment is not yet completed, it would be improper to attempt a perfect description of it; indeed, almost the whole of Carlton House is undergoing alterations and improvements. On the south side of this apartment a door opens into the ball-room, a most magnificent and princely apartment: another door opens into a new room, intended for a drawing-room, at present in an unfinished state. The seats of several of our nobility rival in splendour and costly magnificence this residence of the amiable heir apparent; but in the display of a superior taste, judiciously combining the appropriate, useful, and elegant, Carlton House is unequalled.

Amid the curiosity and interest raised by a view of Carlton House, nothing can exceed that which is excited by an examination of

THE ARMORY.

This valuable and unique collection is a museum, not of arms only, but of various works of art, dresses, &c. : it is arranged with great order, skill, and taste, under the immediate inspection of His Royal Highness. It occupies five rooms on the attic story ; the swords, firearms, &c. are disposed in various figures upon scarlet cloth, and inclosed in glass cases : the whole is kept in a state of the most perfect brightness. Here are swords of every country, many of which are curious and valuable, from having belonged to eminent men : of these the most remarkable is a sword of the famous Chevalier Boyard, the knight *sans peur et sans reproche.* The noble reply of this illustrious dying soldier, made to the Constable of Bourbon, deserves to be remembered. In the war between the Emperor Charles V. and Francis I. of France, the constable had gone over to the emperor, disgusted at the persecutions he met with in France, from the rage of Louisa of Savoy, the queen mother, whose overtures of marriage he had rejected. The emperor made the constable generalissimo of his armies ; and in a battle which was fought in the duchy of Milan, and in which the French were obliged to retreat, the Chevalier Boyard was mortally wounded. Charles of Bourbon seeing him in this state, told him how greatly he lamented his fate. "*It is not me,*" said the dying chevalier, "*it is not me you should lament, but yourself, who are fighting against your king and country.*" A sword of the great Duke of Marlborough, one of Louis XIV. and one of Charles II. : the two last are merely dress swords.

A curious silver-basket-hilted broad sword of the Pretender's, embossed with figures and foliage. But the finest sword in this collection is one of excellent workmanship, which once belonged to the celebrated patriot *Hampden;* it was executed by *Benvenuto Cellini*, a celebrated Florentine, who was much employed by Francis I. and Pope Clement VII.

Peter Torrigiano, who executed the monument of Henry VII. in Westminster abbey, endeavoured to bring over Cellini to England, to assist him; but Cellini disliking the violence of his temper, who used to boast that he had given the divine Michael Angelo a blow in the face with his fist, the marks of which he would carry to the grave,* refused to come with him. *Vasari*, who was contemporary with Cellini, speaks of him in the highest terms. He was originally a goldsmith and jeweller, and executed small figures in alto and basso-relievo with a delicacy of taste and liveliness of imagination not to be excelled: various coins of high estimation were executed by him for the Duke of Florence; and in the latter part of his life, he performed several large works in bronze and in marble with equal reputation. He wrote his own memoirs, which contain much curious and interesting information relative to the contemporary history of the arts.

The ornaments on the hilt and ferrule of the scabbard of this curious sword are in basso-relievo in bronze, and are intended to illustrate the life of David: it is a most beautiful piece of work,

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* This event happened in the palace of Cardinal di Medici:—Torrigiano being jealous of the superior honours paid to Michael Angelo, brutally struck him in the face; his nose was flattened by the blow: the aggressor fled, and entered into the army, but being soon disgusted with that life, left it and came over to England.

and in the highest preservation; it is kept with the greatest care in a case lined with satin.

In the armory is a youthful portrait of Charles XII. of Sweden, and beneath it is a *couteau de chasse* used by that monarch, of very rude and simple workmanship. A sword of General Moreau's, and one of Marshal Luckner's: but it would be impossible in our limits to notice a hundredth part of what is interesting in this collection.

In another room are various specimens of plate armour, helmets, and weapons; some Indian armour of very curious workmanship, composed of steel ringlets, similar to the hauberk worn by the Knights Templars, but not so heavy, and the helmets are of a different construction. Here are also some cuirasses, as worn at present in Germany; a very curious collection of firearms, of various countries, from the match-lock to the modern improvements in the firelock; air-guns, pistols, &c. In this room are also some curious saddles, Mamaluke, Turkish, &c.; some of the Turkish saddles are richly ornamented with pure gold.

Another room contains some Asiatic chain armour, and an effigy of Tippoo Sultaun on horseback, in a dress that he wore. Here are also a model of a cannon and a mortar on new principles; some delicate and curious Chinese works of art in ivory, many rich eastern dresses, and a palanquin of very costly materials.

In another apartment are some curious old English weapons, battle-axes, maces, daggers, arrows, &c.; several specimens also, from the Sandwich and other South Sea Islands, of weapons, stone hatchets, &c.

Our young men of fashion who wish to indulge a taste for

antiquarian researches, may project the revival of an old pattern for that appendage of the leg called *boots*, from the series of them worn in various ages, which form a singular part of this collection.

In presses are kept an immense collection of rich dresses, of all countries; and indeed so extensive and multifarious are the objects of this museum, that to be justly appreciated it must be seen. His Royal Highness bestows considerable attention upon it, and it has in consequence, arrived in a few years to a pitch of unrivalled perfection. Among the dresses are sets of uniforms, from a general to a private, of all countries who have adopted uniforms, and military dresses of those who have not. All sorts of banners, colours, horse-tails, &c.; Roman swords, daggers, stilettoes, sabres, the great two-handed swords, and amongst the rest, one with which executions are performed in Germany, on the blade of which is rudely etched, on one side a figure of Justice, and on the other the mode of the execution, which is thus:—the culprit sits upon a chair, and the executioner comes behind him, and at one blow severs the head from the body. Besides the portraits of several Dukes of Brunswick and Count de Lippe, there are those of Charles XII. the Emperor Joseph II. and Frederic the Great, and various other princes and great men renowned for their talents in the art of war.

Of the exterior of Carlton House it may be sufficient to observe, that it is situated on the north side of St. James's Park, and that the principal front faces Pall-Mall.* The portico is a

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* Pall-Mall was formerly laid out as a walk, or place for the exercise of the *mall*, a game long since disused; its northern side being bounded by a row of trees, and that to the south by the old wall of St. James's Park.

most splendid and magnificent work, of the Corinthian order, enriched with every embellishment that elegant order is capable of receiving. It has been objected, that the other parts of this front are too plain to correspond with so rich a portico: the front is rustic, and therefore does not admit of ornament; but the eye is hurt by the violence of the transition from the most luxuriant decoration to the most rigid plainness. Carlton House, with its court-yard, is separated from Pall-Mall by a dwarf screen, which is surmounted by a very beautiful colonnade. A riding-house and stables, belonging to His Royal Highness, are at the back, immediately contiguous to St. James's Park. The garden is laid out with the utmost taste and skill of which its limits are capable.

On the 8th of February, 1790, His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales had a state levee, for the first time, at his palace of Carlton House, which was the most numerous of any thing of the kind for many years; and, except the want of female nobility, was more numerous and splendid than the generality of the drawing-rooms even at St. James's.

Carlton House was a palace belonging to the crown, and presented by His Majesty to His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales, on his coming of age, for his public town residence. The old building being out of repair, it was judged proper by Parliament to enable His Majesty to erect the present noble edifice in its room; and Mr. Holland had the honour of being appointed the architect. There is only one thing wanting in this palace, and which, from the present state of the arts, and still more the liberal manner in which they are at present patronized, we hope it is in His Royal Highness's contemplation to supply.

It is a collection of pictures by living artists; these, selected with His Royal Highness's well known delicacy of taste and judgment, would complete the decorations of this truly magnificent and PRINCELY PALACE.

THE ROMAN CATHOLIC CHAPEL

LINCOLN'S INN FIELDS

THE annexed print is a very accurate and interesting view of this celebrated chapel: the general effect of the architecture is simple and agreeable. There is a singularity in the pillars; those in the second range in the galleries do not stand perpendicularly upon those under them, but are removed a little more backward: this is mentioned to account for the singular appearance they have in the view, and which might otherwise have been supposed to have proceeded from some error in the artist: in truth, the perspective in this, as in every production of Mr. Pugin's, is always accurate, and conducted with real taste and elegance. The various groups of figures are designed with great spirit, and are highly characteristic of the groups we usually meet with in a Catholic chapel: the general effect of light and shade is broad and simple; the principal light being thrown upon the altar is highly judicious, and is productive of the happiest effect: the picture by Rigaud

THE ROMAN CATHOLIC CHAPEL.

is in his best style, and the other decorations of the altar are extremely elegant.

The Catholic Chapel in Duke-street, Lincoln's Inn Fields, was first opened in the reign of James II. and has continued ever since, with very little interruption, as a place of worship for the Catholics.

In the year 1762 it was burned down by accident, and soon after the present structure was erected, at the expence of the King of Sardinia, from a plan by Signor Jean Baptist Jaque, an amateur of architecture, and secretary of Count Vizi, the Sardinian envoy to the British court.

His Sardinian majesty was at all the expence of this chapel till he lost Savoy and Piedmont by the French revolution: at present it is principally supported by voluntary contributions.

The dreadful riots of June 1780, were produced by the misguided zeal of Lord George Gordon, who having held out to the populace, that the church was in danger from an act which was passed, affording some relief to the Catholics, called a meeting of the Protestants in St. George's Fields; and they, to the number of fifty thousand, signed a petition for the repeal of the act, and went in a body, with Lord George Gordon at their head, to present their petition to the House of Commons: they called themselves *The Protestant Association.* These people, though perhaps mistaken, were however generally respectable and orderly; but the cry of "No Popery" had spread among the lower orders of the people, who, incited by a set of abandoned and desperate wretches, involved the metropolis in all the horrors of anarchy and disorder.

Ignatius Sancho, in his letters, gives a very lively and animated

description of that dreadful period. On the 2d of June, the day appointed for the consideration of the wished-for repeal, Lord North just got to the house a quarter of an hour before the associators arrived in Palace-yard. By the evening there were at least an hundred thousand poor, miserable, ragged rabble, from twelve to sixty years of age, with blue cockades in their hats, besides half as many women and children, all parading the streets, the bridge, and the park, ready for any and every mischief. Lord Sandwich was wounded by them, but was rescued by the guards. A large party of them went about two in the afternoon to visit the king and queen, and entered the park for that purpose, but found the guard too numerous to be forced, and after some useless attempts, gave it up. The Catholic Chapel, the subject of this article, was attacked by the mob and materially injured: with much other valuable property, they destroyed a fine-toned organ, and a very fine altar-piece, painted by Casali: the Sardinian ambassador offered five hundred guineas to the rabble, to save the *picture* and the *organ;* but they told him, they would burn him if they could get at him, and instantly destroyed them both.

These dreadful scenes continued to disgrace the metropolis till the 9th of June, when the rioters were suppressed, after having destroyed the premises of Mr. Langdale, an eminent distiller, on Holborn-Hill; numbers of them miserably perished in the flames, intoxicated to stupefaction with the spirituous liquors, which were set running down the kennels.

The mischief executed by these wicked and infatuated wretches was enormous. The Fleet prison, the Marshalsea, King's Bench, both compters, and Tothill Fields, with Newgate,

were forced open; Newgate partly burned, and three hundred felons, from thence only, let loose upon the world. The King's Bench also was burned. The insurgents visited the Tower, but found it too strong for them. But so supine and feeble was the government of the city under Brack Kennett, then lord mayor, that the mob succeeded at the Artillery-ground, where they found, and took to their use, five hundred stand of arms. The Bank was threatened, but preserved by a detachment of the guards. Lord Mansfield's house was completely destroyed; and, to the irreparable loss of learning and science, his valuable library and collection of manuscripts, which had been the labour of many years and great expence to bring together, devoted without mercy to the devouring flames.

The military power at last restored the affrighted capital to order. The obnoxious bill was repealed; many of the rioters were hanged, and Lord George Gordon committed to the Tower: he was afterwards tried and acquitted, but was put in charge of his friends as a lunatic. It is whimsical, that this hero of the Protestant religion, when he was some years after confined in Newgate for a libel on the Queen of France, turned *Jew.*

To return to the chapel: it was again restored. The picture was replaced by one painted by John Francis Rigaud, R.A.; it represents Christ taken down from the cross, and is one of the best productions of his pencil. The new organ is much esteemed by connoisseurs; it was built by *England.*

All the church service, except the sermon, is in Latin. The masses are sung by the choir, which is under the direction of the organist, who is generally the composer of the music performed there. This chapel can boast of having had some of the most

eminent British musicians for the directors of the choir, among whom the celebrated Dr. Arne was organist for several years. Mr. Samuel Webbe now holds that situation, a gentleman who is not only eminent for the grave and solemn style of his church music, but has also gained high reputation for the beauty and sprightliness of his lighter compositions.

The present clergy of this chapel are,

Dr. Thomas Rigby,
Rev. Richard Underhill,
Rev. Richard Broderick,
Rev. William Beecham.

Rowlandson & Pugin, del. et sculpt.

COAL EXCHANGE.

COAL EXCHANGE

THE print of the Coal Exchange is intended to represent that busy period of the day when buyers and sellers meet for the purpose of completing their old bargains, and making new ones. The groups are disposed with so much felicity, that they form a pleasing foreground, and break in the architectural perspective without diminishing its effect. A collection of individuals, meeting with a view to their separate interests, necessarily describe the same passions, varied only by the difference of character upon which they operate; but the artist has given an expression to the group on the left hand very different from either of the groups on the right: the simplicity which distinguishes one of the figures is highly characteristic. The tall figure with a paper in his hands behind him, appears intended to represent a trader of the old school, and forms an admirable contrast to the buckish *nonchalance* of the more modern merchant leaning against a pillar. The aldermanic figure which appears to be resisting the eloquence of an inferior tradesman, is happily contrasted with the spare and meagre figures which compose that group. There is an arch simplicity in the countenance of the orator with a pen in his hand, that seems to bespeak confidence as well as attention. There is a chaste correctness in the whole picture, highly creditable to the

taste of the artists, and it produces altogether an effect which the subject scarcely promised.

This building was purchased, in the year 1805, by the corporation of the city of London, from the merchants and factors whose private property it had been, for the sum of 25,400*l.* in pursuance of an act of the 43d George III. intituled, *An Act for establishing a free Market in the City of* LONDON *for the Sale of Coals, and for preventing Frauds and Impositions in the Vend and delivery of all Coals brought into the Port of London, within certain Places therein mentioned.* The powers granted by this act have been altered and enlarged by subsequent acts of the 44th, 46th, and 47th George III. The property of the land and building is vested in the lord mayor, who is empowered to receive a duty of one penny per chaldron (or ton, if sold by weight,) on all COALS, CINDERS, or CULM, brought to the port of London: the object of this duty is to repay the purchase money, and to support the expences of the establishment; when a sufficient sum for this purpose has been raised, the duty is to cease. The business of the Coal Exchange is conducted by fifteen gentlemen, called the Board of Sea-Coal Meters. In their office is taken the metage duty above-mentioned; and also the orphan duty, which is collected by the principal clerk (as deputy for Mr. Alderman Newnham). There are two clerks in this office, and about one hundred ship-meters, assisted by labouring meters. The duty on metage is one shilling, to be paid for every five chaldrons or one vat, which is paid into the Chamber of London by the meters upon oath. Their business is, to deliver all coal-ships that come into the port of London. Every ship, within twenty-four hours after her arrival at or to

the westward of Gravesend, is obliged to send an affidavit of the quantity and quality of her cargo; which, unless freighted for government, must be sold in the open market. Any merchant or owner may bring their own coals into this market, without the intervention of a factor or middle man, in quantities not less than twenty-one chaldrons. Every sale must be in the regular appointed hours, from twelve to two; and the price of the coals, with the name at full length, of both buyer and seller, entered in a book, a copy of which must be given to the clerk of the market, who is to keep a register of each sale: the penalty for not delivering such copy to the clerk, is not exceeding 100*l.* nor less than 20*l.*: any fraudulent bargain, such as the making an entry of one price in the market, and agreeing upon some deduction or abatement to be allowed afterwards, subjects the offender to a like penalty.

The Land-Coal Meters is another department: there are three principal meters for the city of London at present, but the establishment will be reduced to two at the death of any one of the present holders of that office. Their business is, to inspect by themselves, or by their deputies and labouring meters cause to be inspected, the admeasurement of coals sold by *wharf measure.* Others are appointed for Surry and for the city of Westminster. In London, the principal meters are appointed by the lord mayor and court of aldermen, and are liable to be fined or discharged for neglect of duty or malversation in their office: their jurisdiction extends over the city of London and its liberties, and from the Tower to Limehouse-Hole. The principal meters for Surry are elected by the churchwardens of the different parishes, and are, for neglect or other offences, under the controul

of the quarter sessions for the county: their jurisdiction extends over all the parishes on the southern banks of the Thames, from Egham to Rotherhithe. The principal meter for Westminster is appointed by the king, and under the controul of the magistrates. There are three clerks of the market, and also a beadle, who resides in the house.

It is impossible in our limits to enter into the minutiæ, but a general idea of the extent of this important trade may be formed from an average estimate taken from the books, by favour of Mr. W. Drummer, principal clerk in the Sea-Coal-Ship Meters' Office, and deputy receiver of the orphan duty. The number of the ships employed are from three hundred and fifty to five hundred, which make about four thousand seven hundred voyages, and bring to the port of London the amazing quantity of 960,000 chaldrons of coals, yearly.

A duty of one shilling per chaldron on all coals brought from Newcastle-upon-Tyne to the port of London, was granted by King Charles II. to Charles Lenox, Duke of Richmond, his natural son by Lady Louisa Renne de Pennecourt, a lady who was brought over by his sister, the Duchess of Orleans, in the year 1660, for the express purpose of making a conquest of that amorous monarch, with a view to confirm him in the French interest: in this project she completely succeeded, and retained her ascendency over him till she died. Charles created her Duchess of Portsmouth, Countess of Farnham, and Baroness Petersfield: Louis XIV. also, at his request, conferred on her the title of Duchess of Aubigny.

In the year 1799, government thought proper to purchase of the late duke his right to the duty on coals above-mentioned. It

ROYAL COCK PIT

appears, from the books in the Sea-Coal-Meters' Office, that it brought in to the duke from 22,000*l.* to 24,000*l.* per annum: he, however, agreed to accept from government an annuity of 20,000*l.* for his own life and that of the present duke.

St. Paul's Cathedral was principally built by several duties on coals. By the 22d Charles II. from 1670 to 1677, two shillings per chaldron was laid on coals, from thence to 1680, three shillings per chaldron, one fourth to be applied to the building St. Paul's; 1st James II. from 1687 to 1700, one shilling and sixpence per chaldron, two thirds towards the building; 8th William III. from 1700 to 1708, twelve shillings per chaldron, two thirds for the use of St. Paul's; 1st Anne, for eight years from 1708, two shillings per chaldron, the whole for this great purpose.

THE ROYAL COCKPIT

BIRD-CAGE WALK, ST. JAMES'S PARK

IT is impossible to examine this picture with any degree of attention, and not experience the highest satisfaction at this successful exertion of the artists' abilities. Whether we consider it altogether as a whole, or separately examine its parts, we shall derive equal pleasure from the employment. The *regular confusion* which the picture exhibits, tells a tale that no combination of words could possibly have done so well. A pedantic disciple of Bossu would say, the plot was admirably contrived, the

characters well supported, the various episodes growing fairly out of the subject, and leading naturally to such a *dénouement* as might be expected. This print may, without undue partiality, be acknowledged to excel that of Hogarth upon the same subject. It is different in one particular: here the satire is general, not personal; a collection of peers and pickpockets, grooms and gentlemen, *bons-vivants* and bullies; in short, a scene which produces a medley of characters, from the highest to the lowest, has seldom been painted with an adherence to nature so strict and so interesting. The principal figure in the front row seems to anticipate the loss of the battle; his neighbour to the right appears to have some *eggs in the same basket;* whilst a stupid sort of despair in the countenance of the next figure, proclaims that all hope is lost: the smiling gentleman on his left seems to be the winner. The clenched fists and earnest features of the personage in the same row, between two sedate *contemplators of the fight*, make one feel that sort of interest which arises from a belief, that the victory depends upon only a little assistance being given at that particular moment to the bird upon whose side he has betted. In the center, and on the highest row behind, are two figures apparently intended as hurling defiance to the whole company; they are certainly offering odds, which no one is disposed to take. A little to the left, and just above the smart officer with a cocked hat, is a group inimitably portrayed. A parcel of *knowing ones*, who have betted pretty high, finding themselves in the *wrong box*, appear very desirous of *edging off*, and are attacking all together a personage who has been too much for them; his attitude is expressive, and, with his fingers thrust in his ears, seems to indicate that he will take no more bets; whilst the two figures

(one in a cocked hat) to the left, appear to enjoy the humorous expedient. If it were not for the knowledge we have, that personal representations are entirely out of the question, we should be inclined to suspect, the artist had in view the late Right Honourable C. F—— and Lord ——, when he drew these personages.

The two feeders appear to take a very natural interest in their respective situations. On the right we discover a pugilistic exhibition, and at a little distance, horsewhips and sticks brandished in the air: all these are the natural accompaniments of this scene. Upon the whole this picture has great merit, and conveys a more perfect idea of the confusion and bustle of a cockpit, than any description. Horace tells us, that a poem and a picture have the same object; but we fancy that Horace could scarcely have anticipated, that Music, in the present day, should be brought to dispute the palm of representing actions with her two sisters, and even to assume the dignity of the epopœa. The account is worth preserving.

In the year 1777, Raimondi gave a concert at Amsterdam, which was to represent to the ear the adventures of Telemachus: it lasted an hour. The parts were distributed in the following manner:—Telemachus, first violin; Mentor, violoncello; Calypso, flute; Eucharis, a nymph of Calypso, the hautboy; the rest of the nymphs were other wind-instruments. The piece began with a symphony, which, in the usual way, expressed a storm; upon which followed a duet, with accompaniments, between the violin and violoncello, viz. Telemachus and Mentor rejoicing at their preservation. Calypso appears (the flute), and lisping, conducts the youth into her grotto. The remaining nymphs made tutti,

which was sometimes interrupted by a solo on the hautboy; for be it known, that Eucharis was likewise enamoured of Telemachus: thus it went on till the whole orchestra expressed the burning of a ship. The wind-instruments play alternate solos, to accord with the complaints and tears of Calypso.

This attempt of Raimondi certainly admits of many improvements: the connection of music and poetry is acknowledged,—that of music and painting is not perhaps so obvious; but, in this age of improvement, we should not be surprised to hear of a proposal for publishing *Handel, illustrated with paintings:* we hope our contemporaries will not be so uncandid as to pirate the hint, and get the start of us.

COLD-BATH FIELDS PRISON

THIS print represents an interior view of the prison, with two of the culprits at hard labour, in which they are employed for an hour at a time. The view is taken from the Water-Engine Court, where they are at work; through the opening of the arch appears part of the chapel. The instant exhibits the turn-key bringing two fresh men to relieve those who have completed their task: the alacrity in the looks of the men who are working, at the appearance of the other delinquents, is aptly contrasted with the surly brutality of the one, and almost stupid insensibility of the other; they neither of them appear to be thoroughly broke in to the discipline of the house. There is

WATER ENGINE.
COLD BATH FIELDS PRISON

something magisterially characteristic in the *tout-ensemble* of the gaoler. The general effect is broad and interesting, and the perspective unexceptionable.

It has been a maxim of ethic writers in every age, that *idleness is the root of all evil.* To check the progress of vice by inducing habits of industry, to restore health by temperance and cleanliness, and to mend the morals of the profligate by restraining vicious intercourse, were among the objects which the projectors of this institution had in view. This prison is said to have been planned and conducted on the principles of the late benevolent Mr. Howard. As it is not the object of this work at all to enter into political disputes, we shall confine ourselves to a short statement of the nature of the establishment; merely observing, in the year 1800, Sir Francis Burdett moved in Parliament, that the management and conduct of this prison be enquired into. A committee of the House of Commons was appointed, by a special commission under the *privy seal*, to investigate it; who made a fair and candid report, in which they declared, *that some abuses did exist.* In February 1808, Mr. Sheridan presented a petition, signed by the foreman of the grand jury, who had visited the prison in November 1807, stating, that the loaves with which the prisoners were served, were deficient in weight from one and a half to two ounces, and that the *prison weight* was light. A special commission was also appointed to examine into this charge.

The following is an extract from the certified copy of the report of the visiting magistrates of the county, to whom it was referred to examine the allegations contained in the letter from Mr. Sheriff Phillips to W. Mainwaring, Esq. dated 13th November, 1807.

"Upon the whole, therefore, of this investigation, it appears to your committee, that the sheriff has been imposed upon, and that the statement made to him originated in misapprehension, and was altogether frivolous and unfounded. And your said committee lastly report, that they have frequently examined into the state and condition of the house of correction, and of the several prisoners there confined; they have found the prison perfectly clean, and the prisoners healthy and without complaint: and your committee have great satisfaction in representing to the House, that it appears to them, by the information of the Rev. Mr. *Evans*, the chaplain to the prison, and Mr. *Aris*, the governor, that the prisoners behave orderly, with decency and due decorum in the chapel during divine service; and that the children, who are kept separate and apart from their parents, make great progress in their learning: all which the committee submit.

"DANIEL WILLIAMS, *Chairman.*"

Report of the TRAVERSE JURY *of the February Session*, 1808.

"We, the *Traverse Jury*, have visited the prison, and have inspected the whole, and have conversed with many of the prisoners, and found no cause of complaint, either in the internal regulations, or the quantity or quality of the provisions, but highly approve of them."

Without pretending to comment on these reports, we shall merely state, that it appears, from the prison bread-book, that the loaves, taken in the aggregate, are almost always above weight; as it is a standing order of the magistrates, that the baker shall be paid for such over-weight, and consequently he has no motive for making his bread light. On the day the grand jury visited the prison, it appears by the book, that the bread was two pounds

over weight in the aggregate, though it is very possible that some of the loaves separately may have been light.

It is a strong proof of the healthiness of the prison, that from November 1793 to November 1807, out of 19,862 male and female prisoners, only ninety-one have died: there have been twenty-four born in the prison in the same period. There are three hundred and thirty-three cells in the prison, in which the convicts are locked up separately at night; there are also more commodious apartments for those who can afford to pay half-a-guinea per week for them.

The prison is divided into two sides, the male and female. On the male side are five day-rooms for the convicts, two rooms for the vagrants, who are sent there for seven days previous to their being passed to their respective parishes; one separate apartment for the debtors, one infirmary, one foul ward, and an apartment for the clerks. On the female side are six day-rooms, a wash-house, two store-rooms, one infirmary, one foul ward, and an apartment for the children of the convicts, who are kept separate from their parents, and are taught to read, say their catechism, &c.; they have three meals a day, and are comfortably clothed.

The COUNTY allowance to the convicts is, for the day, one pint of water-gruel, one pound of bread, half a pound of meat, or six ounces when dressed, three times one week, and four times the next; on the intermediate days they have the broth in which their meat was boiled. All sick persons have wine, or whatever indulgence is ordered by the doctor.

The following are the regulations of the prison:

1. That the walls and ceiling shall be scraped once in the year at least.

2. That the cells shall be kept clean.
3. That they shall be supplied with fresh air by ventilators or otherwise.
4. That there shall be two rooms for the sick.
5. That a warm and cold bath, or bathing-tubs, shall be provided.
6. That this act shall be hung up in the gaol.
7. That a surgeon or apothecary shall be appointed, with a salary.

Once every year the governor is interrogated, whether the above seven regulations have been complied with.

In the first court of the prison are fixed against the wall three large boards, containing an abstract of the various acts relative to the duties of the governor and conduct of the prisoners; they are placed at a convenient height for reading.

The prisoners are severally employed in useful labour. Males, in picking oakum, knotting of yarn, making of spun yarn, making rope, making and repairing the prisoners' clothing, whitewashing and painting the prison, attending the county carpenter, bricklayer, mason, or plumber, as labourers; and others as gardeners, carpenters, making wheelbarrows and other utensils for the garden.

Females, in spinning thread for the use of the prison, making and repairing the bedding and clothing for the prisoners, washing, picking oakum, &c.

Sir Robert Taylor was the architect who began the building; after his death Sir William Chambers was appointed to that office; at his decease it was completed by Mr. Rogers, county surveyor.

COLLEGE OF PHYSICIANS

IT is an observation often made, and the truth of it is obvious to the most careless observer, that the beauty of our principal buildings in the metropolis is in a great measure obscured, or the effect, as architectural ornaments, entirely destroyed, by their situation or neighbourhood. There are few public buildings to which this observation applies more pointedly than the College of Physicians. It is situated in Warwick-lane,* and its appearance is thus wittily described by Garth :

> "Where stands a dome, majestic to the sight,
> "And sumptuous arches bear its oval height,
> "A golden globe, placed high with artful skill,
> "Seems to the distant sight a gilded pill."

The society, according to Pennant, was originally founded by Dr. Linacre, whom he describes as being the first who rescued

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* Warwick-lane took its name from being the town residence of the Earls of Warwick. We have a curious mention in Stow, of Richard Neville, the famous king-making earl, who is described as "coming to London, in the memorable convention of 1458, with 600 men, all in red jackets imbrodered, with ragged staves before and behind, and was lodged in Warwicke-lane: in whose house there was often six oxen eaten at a breakfast, and every taverne was full of his meate; for he that had any acquaintance in that house, might have there so much of sodden and rost meate as he could pricke and carry upon a long dagger."—STOW'S *Survaie*, p. 130.

the medical art from the hands of illiterate monks and empirics. He studied in Italy, was physician to Henry VII. and VIII. and died in 1524.

The college was first in Knight-Rider-street, afterwards it was removed to Amen-corner, and finally fixed where it is. As a work of much delicacy, it has been admitted, by very competent judges, to be highly honourable to its great architect, Sir Christopher Wren. The portico leads into a square, surrounded with brick buildings, ornamented with stone. On one side is a statue of Charles II.; opposite to which is another of Sir John Cutler, a man whom Pope has immortalized in a dozen verses, that do as little credit to the writer as to the memory of the unfortunate miser. Pennant observes, "I was greatly at a loss to learn, how so much respect was shewn to a character so stigmatized for avarice; I think myself much indebted to Dr. Warren for the extraordinary history.

"It appears by the annals of the college, that, in the year 1674, a considerable sum of money had been subscribed by the fellows, for the erection of a new college, the old one having been consumed in the great fire eight years before. It also appears, that Sir John Cutler, a near relation of Dr. Whistler, the president, was desirous of becoming a benefactor. A committee was appointed to wait upon Sir John, to thank him for his kind intentions. He accepted their thanks, renewed his promise, and specified the part of the building of which he intended to bear the expence. In the year 1680, statues in honour of the king and Sir John were voted by the members; and nine years afterwards, the college being then completed, it was resolved to borrow money of Sir John Cutler, to discharge the college

debt, but the sum is not specified. It appears, however, that, in 1699, Sir John's executors made a demand on the college of 7000*l.* which sum *was supposed* to include the money actually lent, the money pretended to be given (but set down as a debt in Sir John's books), and the interest on both: Lord Radnor, however, and Mr. Edmund Boulter, Sir John Cutler's executors, were prevailed on to accept 2000*l.* from the college, and actually remitted the other five: so that Sir John's *promise, which he never performed*, obtained him the statue, and the *liberality of his executors* has kept it in its place ever since; but the college has wisely obliterated the inscription, which, in the warmth of its gratitude, it had placed beneath the figure:

"Omnis Cutleri cedat labor amphitheatro."

It is impossible to peruse this anecdote, however partially related, not to be struck with the insufficiency of the evidence it affords, to fix, with any degree of certainty, a charge of avarice or duplicity on the memory of Sir John Cutler; and we are as little inclined to consider the materials of which it is composed, as conclusive testimony of the *liberality of his executors:* we are indeed the less disposed to do so from the evidence of Mr. Pennant himself, who says, page 441, speaking of Grocers' Hall,

"Here, to my great surprise, I met again with Sir John Cutler, grocer, in marble and on canvass. In the first he is represented standing, in a flowing wig, rather waved than curled, a laced cravat, and a furred gown, with the folds not ungraceful; in all except where the dress is inimical to the sculptor's art, it may

be called a good performance. By his portrait we may learn, that this worthy wore a black wig, and was a good-looking man. He was created a baronet November 12, 1660; so that he certainly had some *claim of gratitude* with the restored monarch. He died in 1693. His kinsman and executor, Edmund Boulter, Esq. expended 7,666*l.* on his funeral expences. In STYRPE'S *Stow*, vol. I. book i. p. 289, *he is spoken of as a benefactor*, and that *he rebuilt the great parlour, and over it the court-room*, which were consumed in the year 1666. He served as a master of the company in 1652 and 1653, and in 1688, and again a fourth time. The anecdote of his bounty to the College of Physicians might have led one to suppose, that the grocers had not met with *more liberal treatment;* but by the *honours of the statue and the portrait*, he *seems* to have gained here *a degree of popularity.*"

There is nothing remarkable in the interior of the building, except the library and the great hall. The former was founded by Sir Theodore Mayerne, and considerably augmented by the Earl of Dorchester; it is handsomely fitted up, and contains a respectable collection of medical and other books. Among the MSS. of the college, are the lives of many of its most distinguished members.

The large hall, which is finely represented in the print, is a handsome, well-proportioned room; if any fault may be found, it is rather too low. The physicians are sitting at a long table, and appear to be employed in the examination of a candidate. The eager disputatious attitude of the figure which is represented as leaning forward, in the act of interrogating the candidate, is finely contrasted with the two figures on his right hand, one of which seems to have gathered up his features into a supercilious in-

difference as to what is passing before him, and indicates at the same time a *self-acknowledged* superiority of intellect. The irritable, anxious figure of the candidate is well imagined; and one of the learned physicians, on his left, who appears to be *calling for an answer* to the question he has put, seems, by multiplying the attack, to increase the no small embarrassment of the poor examinant.* The small group of figures who appear to be employed in discussing some important case, are too deeply interested in its merits to take any part in what is going forward; they are drawn with great force of character, and very delicately hit off.

This apartment is enriched with some good portraits and busts of several eminent men who have belonged to the society. Among other portraits are, a fine painting of Hervey, by Cornelius Janson; a capital portrait of Sir Theodore Mayerne; Sir Thomas Brown, author of *Religio Medici*, and *Vulgar Errors;* the great Sydenham, and his cotemporary, Sir Edward King, the favourite physician to Charles II.; Dr. Friend, the medical historian; Dr. Goodall, the Stentor of Garth's *Dispensary;* and Dr. Mellington, who is so elegantly complimented by that poet, under the name of Machaon. There

* A whimsical anecdote is related of a candidate under his examination. After a variety of other questions, he was thus interrogated: "Now, sir, in a case of desperate fever, the patient wanting *relief by perspiration*, how would you act?" "Why, sir," answered the student, "I should give," &c. &c.—"Well, sir, if that did not operate, what would you do then?" "Why, sir, I should have recourse to," &c. &c.—"But if that did not produce the desired effect, what remedy have you left?" "Gentlemen," said the worried student, with a profound bow, "if all these should fail, I would direct the patient to be brought here for examination, and I should despair of success by any other means, if this failed to produce '*relief by perspiration.*'"

is likewise a very good head of the anatomist Vesalius, painted on board, said to be done by John Calcar, or Kelkar, a painter from the duchy of Cleves, who died in 1546. This painter is said to have excelled so much as a disciple of Titian, that several of his designs and paintings have been ascribed, even by Goltzius, to that master. His *Nativity*, which exhibited the light proceeding from the infant, was a much admired composition. Calcar designed all the heads for the works of Vasari, and the anatomical figures in those of Vesalius. There are several other portraits by masters of inferior note, but which merit the attention of a stranger.

The College of Physicians was first incorporated in the tenth of Henry III. The letters patent thus express the reason for so doing:

"*Cum regii officiis nostri munus arbitremur, ditionis nostræ hominum felicitati omni ratione consulere, id autem vel imprimis fore, si improborum conatibus tempestivè occurramus,*" *&c. &c.*

Dr. Linacre is usually complimented with the whole merit of procuring this establishment, from his having bestowed upon the society the house in Knight-Rider-street, where they originally met; but Dr. Chambre and Fernandez de Victoria, as well as Nicholas Halliwell, John Francis, and Robert Yarley, appear to be equally entitled to a share of that honour which attaches to the founders of this society. Cardinal Wolsey, at that time lord chancellor, appears to have been the means through which the charter was obtained.

It does not seem to admit of any doubt, that at this period the state of medicine required such an institution. The pre-

amble to the statute made in the 3d Henry VIII. may afford us a tolerable idea of what that was.

"The science and cunning of physic and surgerie, to the perfect knowledge whereof are requisite both great learning and ripe experience, is daily within this realm exercised by a great multitude of ignorant persons, of whom the greater number have no manner of insight in the same, nor in any other kind of learning. Some also can read no letters on the book, so far forth, that common artificers, as *smiths*, *weavers*, and *women*, boldly and accustomably take upon them great cures and things of great difficulty, in the which they partly used sorceries and witchcraft, and partly apply such medicines unto the diseased as are very noisome and nothing meet there for, to the high displeasure of God, &c. &c. and destruction of the king's liege people."

Surgery at this period seems to have been very much upon the same footing.

By the 14th Henry VIII. besides confirming their privileges, it was further provided,

"That for the making of the said corporation meritorious, and very good for the commonwealth of this realm, no person of the said politic body and commonalty be suffered to exercise physic, but only those persons that be *profound*, *sad*, and discreet, groundly learned, and deeply studied in physic."

By the 32d Henry VIII. they were exempted from certain personal services.

Queen Mary confirmed the charters granted by her father.

Elizabeth, by another charter, authorized the society "to take

yearly for ever one, two, three, or four human bodies to dissect or anatomize, having been condemned and dead."

In the year 1596, they prayed relief from the queen's council against the city of London, for an infringement of their privileges; and obtained a precept, directed to the mayor and aldermen, "That as even heretofore they (the College of Physicians) had been discharged from all burdens and impositions to which other citizens were liable, so now at that present likewise they should be forborne."

About the same period, a complaint being preferred against the college by two persons whom they had fined for irregular practice, their privileges were further confirmed by the solemn award of the Lord Chief Justice Popham; the most important part of which appears to be, "that no man, though ever so learned a physician or doctor, might practice in London, or within seven miles, without the college licence."

James I. granted this society a charter, dated 8th October, anno regni 15, which was renewed by Charles II. and James II. By this latter the number of fellows was increased from fifty to eighty, and candidates who had taken their degrees in foreign universities, were qualified to become fellows.

The object of this institution, and of the several charters which have been granted to it, was certainly to enable the society to prevent the practice of physic by ignorant pretenders, or persons unqualified for the profession. That such an object was extremely desirable, and most devoutly to be wished, can admit of no reasonable doubt: but either the authority has proved insufficient, or the means which have been employed to obtain the object have been improper; for surely there is no

metropolis in the world so pregnant with empirical impostors, or so *afflicted with medicine*, as London. The attempts at reform which have for some time occupied a considerable portion of the public mind, deserve the most serious attention. If they are pursued with temper and moderation, if the enquiries which are set on foot be conducted with so much candour as to preclude all suspicion of being intended to support preconceived opinions, and if the result of this investigation be not made to dovetail with certain speculative propositions already promulgated, the cause of science and humanity will be under great obligations to the learned and respectable Dr. Harrison, of Horncastle, and his fellow labourers in the same cause; but, on the other hand, if the original promoters should suffer their schemes of reform to degenerate into a pitiful plan for the good of the profession, or operate only to convert a *science* into a *trade*, we shall hesitate to bestow the meed of praise upon their labours, or to hail them as the benefactors of mankind.

The art of medicine, like the other arts which are necessary either to the existence or comfort of mankind, must have had a very early origin; but, owing to the scanty records which we have of the ruder ages, we are unable to trace its rise or progress in very remote periods, nor would the enquiry perhaps lead to any very important information. It is obvious that it must have existed in a greater or less degree of cultivation even among the most unenlightened nations, and modern discoveries lead us to conclude, that the most savage and illiterate tribes are not without some portion of knowledge in that art, which lessens the miseries and prolongs the period of human existence. So long as the art of physic was supported, not upon the foundation

of actual experiment, but upon *occult properties*, assumed as data, it continually appeared under some new form, and the dogmas of the preceding age were supplanted by the more fashionable, but not less fanciful theories of that which succeeded.

Hippocrates was the first we are acquainted with who separated the professions of philosophy and medicine, and applied himself exclusively to the study of physic. After the revival of Grecian literature in the fifteenth century, his works were held in too high a degree of estimation, particularly as they are deficient in anatomy, which is the great foundation of physical knowledge. The liberality of Alexander the Great enabled Aristotle to project his noble work, comprehending a general and detailed history of all nature; and what remain of his writings upon natural history and comparative anatomy, will render his name dear to every student in the science of medicine, when his philosophy shall be forgotten. After the establishment of Alexandria, Herophilus and Erasistratus contributed their labours to the improvement of this science, and were among the first who dissected the human body. This practice (notwithstanding the obstacles opposed to it by religious prejudices) obtained considerably under the Ptolemies; but its progress must necessarily have been slow, when we consider, that even by the touching of a corpse pollution was contracted, and the awful penalty of being interdicted the altars of the gods attached upon the offender. This may account for the horrible expedient which history insinuates was practised at this period, by dissecting the unfortunate criminals alive. But the little we know of the Grecian professors, is from the few extracts which are to be found in the works of Galen. It is singular, that in so long

a period as near six hundred years, which intervened from the days of Hippocrates, Herophilus, and Erasistratus, to the time of Galen, we have scarcely any author upon medicine whose works have been worth preserving. The Romans have not furnished one in this, or indeed in any other branch of natural philosophy; for certainly we should hesitate to admit the claims of Pliny or Celsus, who may be considered as mere compilers from their Greek precursors.

Galen was born at Pergamos, in Asia Minor, about the year 130 of the Christian æra. He was educated at a considerable expence; after being initiated into all the learning of the Greeks, and the schools of philosophy which then existed, he went into the service of the emperors, and resided principally at Rome. Among the remains of antiquity, there are few more valuable than his Commentaries, written upon the uses of the several parts of the body, as hymns of praise to the great Creator. The beautiful story of his conversion every well informed reader is acquainted with.

From the time of Galen, medical and anatomical science seems to have remained with little alteration and without improvement, till the decline and final overthrow of the Roman power by the irruptions of the Goths during the fifth century. The ten succeeding centuries have been properly characterized as the *dark ages*, when science retired to the cloister for safety and protection, and Europe was plunged into darkness so deplorable, that not a single ray of intellectual light shot across the gloom to make even that darkness more visible. Upon the restoration of learning, Hippocrates and Galen were received as oracles; and the doctrines of the latter had obtained so firm a root in

the minds of men, that, about the beginning of the sixteenth century, they appeared to defy all opposition; and the remedies which were supplied by the imperfect chemistry of that period, were only administered by the lower, the more ignorant, or more adventurous professors of medicine.

At length Paracelsus appeared, who does not seem to have studied physic in any of the established schools, but to have picked up remedies from all sorts of people, particularly from the chemists. From them he learned the use of mercury, opium, and antimony; by these he was enabled to cure many disorders that had baffled the *inert remedies* of the followers of Galen. Novelty and accident contributed to raise his fame, and he obtained the professor's chair at Basil. Whether his success be attributed to his merit or his impudence, he was the father of a set of practitioners who opposed the established schools, and ultimately triumphed over the Galenists, notwithstanding the support they received from the secular power, which they called in to crush their adversaries.

In the beginning of the seventeenth century, Sir Theodore Mayerne, who had been much opposed in France as a favourer of chemical remedies, came over to this country, and was appointed physician to the king. He is said to have countenanced the use of antimony, and contributed, by the weight of his great name and authority, to eradicate the distinction which existed between the Galenic and chemical practitioners. But medicine soon after received still greater improvements from another disciple of Paracelsus, Van Helmont. He was the first who gave the name of *gas* to the aëriform vapours, and applied its theory to the elucidation of some phenomena of the animal

economy. "We are surprised," says Lavoisier, "to find in Van Helmont an infinite number of facts which we are accustomed to consider as more modern." And it certainly is impossible to deny, that his treatise *de Flatibus* contains most of those splendid facts which we look at with admiration in the works of Priestley, Cavendish, and even Lavoisier himself. The phenomena his chemistry presented were so marvellous, that he was accused of magic, and thrown into the Inquisition, from whence he was ultimately released, and having retired to Holland, he there died in the year 1544.

Soon after, the illustrious Bacon formed plans for promoting the sciences in general, and that of natural philosophy in particular. His comprehensive mind formed a just estimate of the value of chemistry, and he pointed out the only mode by which this, as well as the other branches of philosophy, can ever be attained as a science:—"Non *fingendum*, aut *excogitandum*, quid natura feret et faciat, sed *inveniendum* est." He advised the collecting of facts, and to compare these maturely and cautiously, as the only basis upon which the pillar of science could be reared; he rejected theory and conjecture unsupported by experiment. The principles of philosophising being altered agreeable to the directions of this illustrious man, more light has been thrown upon the science of medicine in one century, than it had received for two thousand years before. He died 25th February, 1626.

In the year Bacon was lost to the world, Robert Boyle was born; of whom it has been said, "that he was the person designed by nature to succeed to the labours and enquiries of that extraordinary genius."—"Of the writers," says Boerhaave, "who have treated of chemistry with a view to natural philo-

sophy and medicine, we may reckon among the chief Mr. R. Boyle." What Van Helmont called *gas*, Boyle denominated *artificial air*. He has examined the philosophy of the chemists with the greatest temper, candour, and modesty, and has admirably explained its weaker points. In addition to the facts which had been already ascertained, he appears to have discovered, that some bodies, such as camphor, sulphur, &c. *diminish the volume of air in which they burn.* He died 30th December, 1691.

To Boyle succeeded Mayow, a name of little note in the philosophical world for many years after he had paid the debt of nature; but, according to the analysis of his works by Dr. Beddoes, "he was acquainted with the composition of the "atmosphere, and perceived the action of oxygen or vital air "in almost all the whole extent of its influence. He was well "aware of the cause of the increase of weight in metallic calces, "and distinctly pointed out, that certain bases are rendered acid "by the accession of vital air. The doctrine of respiration is "all his own.—The office of the lungs (says he) is to separate "from the air, and convey to the blood, one of its constituent "parts. He investigates the change which the air produces in "the blood during its passage through the lungs;—and adds, "that on respiration something noxious is thrown out." But his philosophy, according to his Dutch translator, does not appear to have found much approbation in his own age.

The experiments made by these three philosophers established the fact, that some *elastic vapour*, analagous to air, escaped from bodies in many operations; but Dr. Hales seems to have been the first who formed any idea of the exact *quantity*, which, in many instances, he ascertained by experiments. To the im-

mortal Boerhaave we are indebted for the doctrine of *Resolution* and *Composition.* It was reserved for the unfortunate, but illustrious Becher to arrange the desultory experiments of those who had preceded him, and from the immense stores of chemical facts, to form the theory of phlogiston, which soon obtained credit throughout Europe. This theory was adopted and commented upon by Stahl, principal physician to the King of Prussia. The doctrine of phlogiston has been succeeded by the new, or antiphlogistic theory, which has since sprang up in France: it derived its chief origin from Lavoisier, who was joined by other eminent chemists and philosophers of considerable talents, who have united their labours to establish the new system. Never was the passion for novelty more happily exerted among the philosophers of France, than in the cultivation of this ample field of knowledge; which, however, had been first explored, and the richness of the soil demonstrated, principally by our illustrious countrymen, Mayow, Boyle, Hales, Black, Cavendish, and Priestley.

We are now arrived at a new æra of physic, which commenced under the most brilliant auspices. Out of the pneumatic theory arose the employment of factitious airs in medicine; and in many cases where these remedies were tried at the Hotel Dieu, in Paris, they proved eminently successful; but having unfortunately been applied in a case of consumption, in which they did not succeed, and the revolution in France beginning about the same period, together with the tyranny of Robespierre, who put to death Lavoisier,* and many other literary characters, a

* Lavoisier was supposed to be rich, and therefore was guillotined. He requested but three days to finish an important experiment he had begun, when the wretch who governed that unhappy country, replied, "France has no need of philosophers, but of patriots," and ordered him to execution immediately.

veil was drawn over this branch of science for a time; but, as Fourcroy justly observes, it has begun to establish on new views, more solid than were heretofore possessed, a system of animal physics, which promises an abundant harvest of discoveries.

We have pursued this subject up to the introduction of vital air in the practice of medicine, without stopping by the way to notice other improvements of equal, if not more important consideration. About the year 1628, the discovery of the circulation of the blood immortalized our countryman, Harvey. It is by far the most important step towards a knowledge of the animal economy that has been made in any age or in any country; and yet it appears to be so obvious, as to leave us in astonishment how we could possibly have continued so long ignorant* of a motion in our frame, which is the basis of life, and which chance or accident must have made us sensible of a thousand times. Indeed many of the facts which led to this great discovery were known even to the ancients, but their theories were incomplete or inconsistent; each in turn had its revolution, and one error succeeded to another. Hippocrates believed that all the vessels communicated with each other, and that the blood had a regular flux and reflux to and from the heart, like the ebbing and flowing of the sea. The anatomists of Alexandria, finding in their dissections that the arteries were empty, supposed them to be merely tubes for the conveyance of air, and gave them a name accordingly, by which they have ever since been distinguished; and they supposed the veins to be the only channels for the blood.

* Every thing appears easy when it is known. Columbus challenged his opposers to make an egg stand upright on one end; they attempted it in vain: he took one, and flattening it with a gentle blow or two on the table, it stood without difficulty.

Galen discovered that the blood flowed both by the arteries and veins, but he was ignorant of its natural course. The pulmonary circulation was known to Severus and several other eminent men. Fabricius ab Aquapendente (who was the preceptor of Harvey) has particularly described the valves of the veins, by which the blood is prevented flowing at their extremities. But even Harvey was unacquainted with the direct communication which subsists between the arteries and the veins: he thought the blood transuded through a spongy substance into the latter. This great discovery of Harvey's paved the way to almost all the important improvements which have since been made in the science of medicine. Aselli, an Italian physician, discovered the lacteals, by which the chyle is carried through millions of tubes (whose perforation is too fine even for the microscope to discover), and deposited in the glands of the mesentery, where being attenuated by a thin diluting lymph, it is conveyed to the *common receptacle*, and mounts by a perpendicular tube called the thoracic duct (which was discovered by Pecquet in France), to be poured into the left subclavian vein, where mixing with the blood, it loses the name of chyle. From this vein it passes into the vena cava superior, and through the right auricle of the heart is forced into the right ventricle; from thence, by the astonishing mechanism of these parts, it is compelled into the great or pulmonary artery, which carries it to the lungs, and by its contracting power drives the blood into every part of that organ. It is in this amazing laboratory it imbibes oxygen from the air we breathe, and in consequence of which it assumes a more brilliant colour. It then enters the left auricle by the four pulmonary veins, and is thence protruded into the left ventricle, which by

contracting itself pushes the blood into the aorta; hence, as from a great reservoir, it is impelled by the powerful energy of the heart, and conducted by means of the arteries to the most remote parts of the body. The extremities of all the arteries being connected with the beginning of the veins, the same force which impels the blood through the former, helps to drive it through the latter. The blood entering into the right auricle by the two opposite currents of the vena cava superior and inferior, (that the streams may not clash,) a fibrous excrescence is interposed, which breaks the stroke of each, and throws both into their *proper receptacle.* Thus is the blood reconducted to the great reservoir from which it was originally impelled, and mixing with the new chyle, which recruits its exhausted powers, circulates again, *first* through the *lungs*, and then through the *body.*

Great benefits were expected to result from the transfusion of blood into the veins of diseased persons: the first hint of this great attempt was given so long since as 1658, by Dr. Christopher Wren, Savilian professor of astronomy at Oxford. In the year 1666, the idea of transfusing liquor into the veins was improved by Dr. Richard Lower, who invented the method of transfusing the blood of one animal into another. This was followed by Dr. Edmund King, who rendered Lower's method more complete and easy; and various experiments were made, by direction of the Royal College of Physicians, upon horses, dogs, sheep,* &c.

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* When the experiment was made some years since at Cambridge, by Professor Harwood, the blood of a sheep was transfused into the veins of a pointer, and more blood being admitted than was proper, the animal, sensible of plethora, began eating grass (which instinct teaches them will produce sickness). An old bed-maker, who was

From England this invention passed into France, where J. Denis, doctor of physic at Paris, and Monsieur Emerez, performed this operation upon human subjects. Experiments of the same kind were likewise made by J. G. Riva, at Rome.

M. Denis published an account of a young man cured of lethargy by transfusing the arterial blood of a lamb into his veins; and a surprising cure of madness was performed by transfusing the blood of a calf into the veins of a man, in the presence of many persons of rank and learning. On the 23d November, 1667, the blood of a lamb was transfused into the veins of Arthur Coga, at Arundel House, by Dr. Edmund King and Dr. Richard Lower; and Coga published an account of the benefit he received by the experiment, under his own hand: but this operation having been performed on Baron Bond, a son of the first minister of state in Sweden (who had been given over by his physicians for an inflammation in his bowels), and on another person in the last stage of a consumption, both of which proved unsuccessful, the practice fell into discredit, and was forbid by the king's authority in France, and by the pope's mandate at Rome.

A discovery of great importance in medicine has conferred the highest honours on the name of Haller; we mean of that *property* essential to all animals, and likewise to plants, called *irritability*. He distinctly proves, that in *all living* bodies there is a *peculiar property* which distinguishes them from *the dead;* and Haller may be truly said to have converted physiology into a science, by

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present, immediately cried out, "Lord, maister! see if your dog be'ent turn'd sheep already!"—Our anti-vaccinarians of the present day furnish abundance of similar wise conclusions from similar data.

relieving it from the uncertain fluctuations of conjecture, and fixing its pretensions on the basis of actual experiment. This discovery, like that of the circulation of the blood, was at first opposed; but when the evidence of incontrovertible facts had convinced error, and silenced an opposition more obstinate, it was then attempted to wrest the merit of the discovery from its author.

The first who endeavoured to form a system of physic upon the irritability of the fibre, was Dr. Brown, from whom it has obtained the name of the *Brunnonean system.* His doctrine of *excitement*, according to the opinion of a very competent judge, *is a specimen of extensive reasoning, truly calculated to afford the highest satisfaction to a just thinker;* and he has clearly demonstrated, that the several parts of that complicated machine, the human body, OBEY THE SAME GREAT AND FUNDAMENTAL LAWS.

When the personal conduct of Dr. Brown shall cease to be opposed to his doctrines, and the grossness of his manners shall no longer be supposed to affect the soundness of his reasoning, then will posterity affix a real value upon his discovery, and assign it that rank, to which, from its usefulness, it is entitled.

The length to which this article is already extended, prevents our noticing many other discoveries in medicine which have been made within the last century; but we cannot omit the important discovery of vaccination by Dr. Jenner, as a preventive against the small-pox infection. This, like all the other great improvements, has been opposed by the prejudices of indolence, vanity, and envy: the solemn investigation and approbation of Parliament, the almost universal suffrages of the liberal and learned,

the success which has attended the practice of it by the most enlightened nations, must, however, convey the highest gratification to the mind of its benevolent author.

To destroy prejudice, and accelerate improvement, has always been a work of time as well as difficulty.* In medicine it is attended by circumstances which do not necessarily attach to the other sciences; but even with respect to them, it has always been a subject of regret, that the greatest improvements are opposed by the most obstinate prejudices. Sir Isaac Newton, writing to Dr. Bentley, says, "If I had foreseen all the weight of opposition that has arisen against me, I would have left to others the pursuit of an empty shadow."

Dr. Fothergill observes, that it was thought audacity in M. Fagon to defend the Harveian discovery, which had taken place forty years preceding; and yet Harvey lived to know, that

* His late majesty wished to have the streets of London and Westminster paved in the present way, but advising with some Scotch physicians, they said it would be very hurtful to the health of his majesty's good citizens of London, who had little time to spare for taking exercise; and that the jolting of a coach one mile over the stones, did more service than travelling several miles on a better road. His majesty had too serious a regard for the health of his people than to countenance any thing that might injure it: however, several Londoners, who had observed the superiority of the streets of Edinburgh, resolved, about fifty years ago, to make trial; and we are credibly informed, that York and St. James's were the first streets paved in the new way; and the mob were so displeased, that at night they took up what was put down in the day. Among other objections, it was said that the stones were too small, and could not bear the weight of carriages, and it would be so smooth the horses' feet would have no footing. It was in vain to tell them, that the streets of Edinburgh had been paved more than a hundred years back. The night watchmen being increased, and the trial succeeding, it became universal, and many other towns and cities adopted it; and I believe nothing *now* would induce them to submit to have streets paved *in the old way.*

some of his opposers were ashamed of being thought to rank among those who had ever doubted the circulation of the blood.

Linnæus created a new system of vegetable nature, and left posterity to decide between him and its opposers. "*These,*" said he, pointing to some academic children at play, "*these will be our judges.*"

It is the reflection of being serviceable to our fellow creatures, and the hope of being enrolled among the benefactors of mankind, that afford the best antidote to those feelings which are excited by the envy or ingratitude of the age in which we live.

Medicine itself has not undergone more obvious changes, than the appearance of medical practitioners. The solemn mummery* of the profession is considerably abridged, and the mysteries of physic, like the mysteries of religion, have almost disappeared in an age more liberal and more enlightened.

This institution is governed by a president, eight electors, four censors, a register, and a treasurer, who are annually chosen the first week in October.

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* Among other alterations in the dress of medical men, we shall notice an anecdote of Dr. Sommervail, whose humour occasioned the disuse of the tie wig. Some of the faculty having taken offence at the doctor, who frequently came to George's without a sword and in coloured clothes, he was on that account insulted by his indignant brethren. The following day he came to the coffee-house having on the Jehu wig of his coachman, who, on the contrary, was dressed in the doctor's tie. "Here, gentlemen," says he, "is an argument to the purpose, that knowledge does not consist in exteriors. There is not one of you would trust me to drive him, and the world shall see, as I pass through the streets of London, *that the wig does not constitute the physician.*" Having for several days made this curious exhibition, the tie wig at length became an object of ridicule, rather than of respect.

ELECTORS.

Sir Lucas Pepys, Bart. *President.*
Dr. Henry Revell Reynolds.
Dr. Richard Budd, *Treasurer.*
Sir Francis Milman, Bart.
Dr. David Pitcairn.
Dr. James Carmichael Smyth.
Dr. John Latham.
Dr. John Mayo.

CENSORS.

Dr. John Latham.
Dr. Richard Powell.
Dr. Charles Price.
Dr. Thomas Turner.

REGISTER.

Dr. James Harvey.

HOUSE OF COMMONS

IT may be rather desirable than unprofitable, in a popular work of this nature, to give a short history of the English constitution, before we describe either the courts of law, or the three branches which compose the legislature, particularly as it may enable our readers to enjoy with more facility the *dévelopement* of its different parts, if we delineate with correctness and fidelity the more important outlines.

It may admit of some doubt whether this is precisely the sort of work from which information of this nature may be reasonably expected; but as in this respect our minds, like our appetites, are whetted by a change of food, and as variety supplies them both with an increased relish for what is set before them, we shall venture upon this part of our plan with the hope of being useful to some of our readers, if not equally entertaining to all.

Delectando pariterque monendo.—Hor.

In the earlier stages of society, men appear to have lived in the enjoyment of an uncontrolled liberty, subject to no other rules of conduct than the mere *laws of nature*, until necessity or convenience led them to associate in aggregate bodies. They were impelled to this association, by their mutual wants and fears; government of some sort or other naturally resulted from

society, because without it the community could neither be continued or preserved, or the individuals composing it reap those advantages of assistance and protection which led them to associate originally.

In this infant state of society, the rules of conduct, or *positive laws*, must necessarily have been few: it is equally obvious, that *wisdom*, *virtue*, or *power*, were the leading qualities which led to a choice of the persons to whom the execution of these laws should be confided; or, in other words, these were considered as the *attributes of that sovereignty*, to which all assented, and by which all submitted to be governed.

We may still presume, that the chieftains of the unpolished hordes which composed this stage of society, more frequently decided from the passions of the moment, than from any fixed and determinate rules of conduct. Even when society appears to have made a greater progress, and mankind had arrived at a higher degree of civilisation, we find their code of laws *short*, *general*, and *ambiguous*, affording a specimen of the simplicity, rather than the sagacity of its compilers.

The Jewish jurisprudence consisted of ten sentences; and even the Romans, availing themselves of all the assistance to be derived from the more polished Greeks, comprised the laws of their commonwealth in twelve tablets of brass; a system so short and compact, that, according to Cicero, every boy was obliged to learn it by heart. But laws necessarily multiply in much the same proportion as the refinements of society; we are not therefore to be surprised, that the laws of Rome, which, under the Decemvirs, consisted of only a few brief sentences should, in the latter ages of the empire, have become a "*load*

for many camels;" nor will it excite our wonder, that the *Dome-book*, or *Liber Judicialis*, of the great Alfred, contains the foundation of our own jurisprudence, now so voluminous and complicated.

LAND, which we may suppose to have been first held in common, soon became the property of tribes, and afterwards was parcelled out to individuals: hence certain rules of descent, with a long train of entails, conveyances, grants, settlements, and incumbrances. PERSONAL PROPERTY, the acquirement and possession of which seems naturally to have resulted from the protection and security which the regulations of society afforded, was also accompanied by certain rules and customs, necessary to its being devised, granted, or exchanged; and these customs in process of time assumed the name, and added to the number of laws. THE LIBERAL AND MECHANIC ARTS likewise flourishing in the same ratio that luxury, or the wants of society, increased; and COMMERCE, which is both the parent and child of riches, introducing refinements of negociation, and complexity of rival interests, eventually led to a more extended field of legislation. *The laws which relate to trade* unavoidably swell in proportion to the foreign and domestic relations of a country; whilst those which relate to *property* or *personal security*, having their foundation in that refinement of wisdom which legislates for the *prevention*, as well as *chastisement* of crimes, are susceptible of almost daily increase.

Law, in its general sense, has been very properly defined to be "*a rule of human action dictated by a superior power:*" and the great fundamental rule of reason and of ethics is simply, that "man should pursue his own happiness without injury to

the happiness of others;" for by whatever train of argument we pursue the several branches into which different systems have subdivided this universal rule, they all lead to the same inevitable conclusion, that this action, tending either to the happiness or misery of mankind, is *therefore* consistent with, or repugnant to, the "LAWS OF NATURE."

In the present state of human imperfection, reason is not always sufficient to point out with exact precision what conduct will invariably assist us in this pursuit; the same Providence, therefore, which in its wisdom created, has in its goodness discovered to us, by direct revelation, so much of the DIVINE LAW as may be necessary to enforce our observance of that natural law, which is essential to our own individual happiness and the comfort of each other.

We have already stated, that necessity and convenience led men naturally into a state of society; but the same circumstances made it impossible that the whole race of mankind should form only *one society*. In their progress from a rude, uncultivated state, to civilization and refinement, various forms of government have been devised by different nations, adapted to their local wants, or to their relative situation with other communities, independent of them, but connected perhaps by habits of mutual intercourse. This has made a third denomination of laws unavoidable and necessary. The intercourse between communities that meet upon an equal footing, and who acknowledge no superiority in one another, is regulated by the LAW OF NATIONS.

Quod naturalis ratio inter omnes homines constituit, vocatur JUS GENTIUM.

It was before observed, that various forms of government have

been devised, the only object of which should have been the mutual happiness and security of the whole community; but the history of mankind furnishes abundant proofs, that those in whom the power of legislation has resided, or to whom the execution of the laws has been committed, either entertained a very different object, or have pursued it by means which unfortunately produced very different effects. An eloquent historian* has observed, that the reign of the Antonines furnishes the only exception to this melancholy truth. It would appear, that in treating of politics, the ancient writers considered only three kinds of government as legitimate or regular, and that all others were mere deviations from, and reduceable to one or other of these. Thus Quintilian says, "It is uncertain how many subjects "live under one government, but we are certain as to the forms: "thus we know how many sorts of government exist, which are "three, one wherein the people, another wherein a few, and the "third wherein one man is sovereign."

A government partaking in its nature of all the three, avoiding the inconveniences attached to them separately, was considered as chimerical, if not altogether impracticable,—as a thing rather to be desired than to be expected,—as a meteor, which, if it ever illuminated the political horizon, might sparkle, but must soon expire.

Statuo esse optimè constitutam rempublicam quo ex tribus generibus illis, regali, optimo, et populari, modice confusa.—CIC. FRAGM.

Cunctas nationes, et urbes, populos aut priores aut singuli regunt; delecta ex his constituta reipublicæ forma, laudari facilius quam evenire; vel si evenit, haud diuturna esse potest.—TACIT. ANNAL. *lib.* iv.

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* *Vide* Gibbon, vol. I.

It was reserved for this country to exhibit, in the structure of its constitution, a happy combination of these different systems, and to establish the possibility of that union, which the political writers here quoted seem to have looked for in vain. But we are not to imagine this discovery was either the result of abstract reasoning, the effect of a single effort, or even the work of a single age. An impatience of slavery, and a rooted attachment to personal and political freedom, seems to have been the predominant passion of the Britons in the most remote ages: from that period when the first dawn of liberty gleamed upon our druidical ancestors, they seem to have cherished this attachment with enthusiastic ardour; and the sacred flame of liberty appears in succeeding ages to have survived the shock of commotions, which threatened its utter extinction. Our information respecting the ancient Britons is at best meagre and scanty; the little we are acquainted with we owe to their conquerors, but that little is to their credit. The Druids were at once their priests and legislators, and, armed with the power of superstition, exercised over them a civil and criminal jurisdiction; but the people in general appear to have enjoyed a great portion of political freedom. The difficulties which attended the conquest of our ancestors by the Romans, bear ample testimony to their bravery; and the speeches of Galgacus, Boadicea, Caractacus, and other British chieftains, furnish us with splendid examples of that animating eloquence, which is produced by a love of liberty, operating upon strong and ardent, but uncultivated minds. During this arduous struggle of desultory courage against Roman discipline, we are told by Tacitus, that their antipathy to slavery was such, that when the Britons despaired of preserving them

from it by any other means, they frequently put their wives and children to death *with their own hands.*

It would appear that the religion of the Britons assisted to cherish this attachment, and by what standard shall we calculate the efforts of the human mind, when reason is assisted by prejudice, and prejudice animated by superstition? Accordingly we find, that the Romans, departing from their usual policy with respect to conquered nations, found it necessary to abolish their ancient worship by the most rigorous penal laws; and even the brave, the mild, and the accomplished Agricola, after conquering them by his arms, endeavoured to subjugate their minds still more, by the introduction of Roman luxuries, manners, and jurisprudence. But the spirit of the people, however partially subdued, was still unbroken; and Tacitus informs us, "that the Britons are a people who pay the taxes and obey the laws with pleasure, so long as no arbitrary demands are made upon them; but these they cannot bear without the greatest impatience, for they are reduced to the state of subjects, not of slaves."

The manners, the religion, and even the jurisprudence introduced by the Romans, were in their turn obliterated by civil dissension and future conquerors; for when they were attacked on all sides by the barbarians, and reduced to the necessity of defending the center of their dominions, this island was abandoned, with many other of their distant possessions. Left to itself, it became successively a prey to some one or other of the nations inhabiting the shores of the Baltic: at length, after reciprocally annoying each other, it was subjugated by the Saxons, a race of free, uncultivated barbarians, issuing from the forests of Germany. The several sovereignties of which England

was at this period composed, were united in one kingdom under Egbert; and the Saxon laws and customs, mingled with the local practices of the country, form at this day the common law, or *lex non-scripta.* The successors of Egbert, who are denominated the Anglo-Saxon line, continued to reign about two hundred years; but we know little of the constitution at this period, except that, like all the governments established by the northern nations, a king and a body of nobility were component parts of it.

Of these princes, Alfred and Edward the Confessor are particularly distinguished: the former supplying the deficiencies of education by the vigour of his mind, and by the force of his uncommon genius dispelling the gloom of a Gothic and barbarous age, has acquired the high reputation of being the founder of our laws and constitution. It has, however, been imagined by the more enlightened, that having ascertained the particular customs and local practices of his kingdom, he only formed *from them* his *Liber Judicialis*, and exerted the whole weight of his power for the observance of his laws. This period forms the first, and almost the brightest æra in the history of our legislation. Alfred took care to have his *nobility instructed*, and his judges and civil officers were selected *for their probity and knowledge:* he was severe in punishing any malversation committed by the higher class of delinquents. He instituted the county and hundred courts, and was himself indefatigable in promoting the general welfare of his subjects. It is to him that we are indebted for that noble palladium of liberty, that great security for all our other privileges, the institution of the trial by jury; for although its form is said to have prevailed among most of the nations of

Gothic descent, and probably in some parts of England, yet it appears that we are indebted to Alfred for its more general adoption in this country. The trial by jury seems to be that point of their liberty from which all its rays diverge, and it is that to which the people of England have at all times appeared to be most thoroughly and most deservedly attached.

In criminal cases particularly it increases the security of the people from the effect of judicial power, and from that power being made subservient to the views or personal resentments of the monarch: this security is further strengthened, in the exercise of a power on which the happiness or life of a fellow creature depends, by the feeling which every man must have, that his own fate may be essentially connected, in the course of human events, with the doom of that man upon whose conduct he is about to decide. If in the lapse of ages we forget the debt of gratitude we owe to the author of this feature in the constitution, which distinguishes it from the jurisprudence of every other nation, let us at least stop to admire the ingenuity of an institution, which enables every man in this country to enjoy a security derived immediately from the laws, and independent of the will or arbitrary power of any individual.

The subsequent irruption of the Danes led to the introduction of new laws and customs, known by the name of the *Dane-lage;* but these were principally confined to the eastern and midland counties, where these piratical freebooters had formed their establishment. When Canute restored the Saxon customs in a general assembly of the states, he also enforced a proper

execution of the laws, and dispensed a strict and impartial justice. After the two succeeding reigns, we find Edward the Confessor made a new digest from the institutions of Ethelbert, Ina, and Alfred. This compilation, which forms the basis of our *common law*,* so favourable to liberty, was long an object of affection to the English people, who struggled hard, though ineffectually, to restore it under the first princes of the Norman line. It was this code which occasioned Edward to be styled *legum Anglicorum restitutor*, as Alfred had before been called *conditor*. It was particularly endeared to the nation, from its

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* The common law doth seem to be set in opposition by some, not only to the civil law, to the ecclesiastical law, to the statute law, but also the Chancery, and to the decrees thereof, as if those decrees were no part of the law of the land and of the common law. But for the clearing thereof it will be very requisite to look into the beginning of ours and others laws as how that term of *common law* first began, the word common being never applied to one, but to many; as when two or more nations or people, which were formerly governed by several princes and several laws, were afterwards united under one prince and one law, then such laws were called *common law*. So we read of *jus commune Romanorum*, that governed the whole empire; *jura communia Longobarda et Romana*, when the Longobardi had conquered a great part of Italy, and were united to the ancient inhabitants and others.

So with us, when the Saxons had conquered a great part of this island, and had set up several kingdoms in it, and had several laws whereby those kingdoms were governed, as the West-Saxon law, the Mercian law, the Northumbrian law; and afterwards the Danes prevailing, set up their laws, called by them the Danish law.

The several kingdoms coming to be united, and the name of England given unto this kingdom by them, and afterwards Edward (called the Confessor) being sole king thereof, caused one body of law to be compiled out of those several laws, and did ordain that those laws of his should be common to all his subjects; and in those laws of King Edward the Confessor that term of *common law* first began with us, being called common in respect of those several people that before lived under several laws, to whom those laws were now common, though, in respect of the author, they were called Edward the Confessor's laws, or Saint Edward's laws.—RAN. CESTR. SPELMAN, STOW, SPEED, DANIEL.

decisions being universally known, and from its being particularly adapted to their genius, manners, and habits.

But the period was now arrived when our ancestors were to exchange the mild and beneficent government of the Saxon laws, for the arbitrary will and continental severities of William the Conqueror, who having defeated Harold, ascended the throne as a conqueror, subverted the whole Saxon fabric, and introduced the feudal system of government. It is true, this system prevailed in almost every nation upon the continent; but *there* its oppressive train of *reliefs*, *fines*, and *services*, had been interwoven with the earliest ideas of the people, it had been derived from their ancestors, and was cherished in some measure by an opinion of its political utility. But in England the feudal system was introduced all at once by force of arms, and was more severely felt, as it daily contrasted with their old laws, habits, and prejudices, and insultingly reminded them, that they were a conquered and suspected people. Almost the whole property of the kingdom was transferred to other hands, and the lands, no longer allodial, were held at the will of a superior lord. A new plan of criminal jurisprudence was introduced, and the little which remained of their liberties was regulated by a foreign law, expressed in a strange and unknown language. But the most wanton and cruel innovation to which they were subject was the forest laws, which operating as so many penal statutes, inflicted the loss of an eye as the punishment for killing a hare, at the same time the crime of murder could be expiated by a pecuniary fine. The right of imposing taxes was also assumed, and the most extensive judicial authority personally exercised by

this monarch. He established a court of *dernier resort* in civil and criminal cases, called *Aula Regis*,* which being composed of the great officers of his court, removable at pleasure, and having the king himself for president, may be truly styled *a most formidable tribunal.* But liberty seems to be like that herb which flourishes more vigorously the more it is trod upon. The excessive power of the monarch, and the arbitrary, tyrannical manner in which it was exercised, sunk deep into the minds of the people, and nourished that general disposition to resist, and that union among all ranks, which ultimately made resistance effectual.

From this state of oppression the nation imagined they were about to be relieved under Henry I. who having usurped the throne of his elder brother, endeavoured to maintain his power by removing many of the grievances which existed during the reigns of the Conqueror and his son Rufus; he abolished those laws which bore heaviest on the people, particularly the curfew, and softened the severities of the feudal system in favour both of the barons and the vassals. But a circumstance happened in this reign which had nearly proved fatal to the portion of common law which survived the rigours of the Norman conquest, and which was still fondly cherished by some of the barons. This was the discovery of a copy of the Pandects of Justinian, about the year 1130, at Amalfi, in Italy. Whatever merit the Roman jurisprudence may possess, it seems better calculated for

* Out of which court of *Aula Regis* the four courts of Westminster, the Chancery, King's Bench, Common Pleas, and Exchequer, were afterwards derived.

the meridian of absolute monarchy,* than likely to assimilate with the habits of a people impressed with a strong attachment to liberty. It was, however, the interest of the church of Rome to propagate this study, and we find it introduced by the clergy with all the weight of their influence, which was not inconsiderable; for, at this period, they were almost the only depositories of learning, had monopolized all the great law offices, and filled nearly all the subordinate departments.† This novelty was, how-

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* Under William the Conqueror, and his immediate successors, a multitude of foreign ecclesiastics flocked to the court of England. The English nobility saw with the greatest jealousy men of a condition so different from their own, vested with a power, to the attacks of which they were immediately exposed, and thought that they would carry that power to the height, if they should ever adopt a system of laws which those same men sought to introduce, and of which they would necessarily become both the depositories and the interpreters. It happened, therefore, by a somewhat singular conjunction of circumstances, that, to the Roman laws brought over to England by monks, the idea of ecclesiastical power became associated, in the same manner as the idea of regal despotism was afterwards annexed to the religion of the same monks, when favoured by kings who endeavoured to establish an arbitrary government. The nobility at all times rejected these laws even with a degree of ill humour: and the usurper, Stephen, whose interest it was to conciliate their affections, went so far as to prohibit the study of them. Even at present the English lawyers attribute the liberty they enjoy, and of which other nations are deprived, to their having rejected, while those nations have admitted, the Roman law; which is mistaking the effect for the cause. It is not because the English have rejected the Roman laws that they are free, but it is because they were free (or at least because there existed among them causes which were, in process of time, to make them so), that they have been able to reject the Roman laws.—De Lolme.

† For the chancellor and chief justice of England were assistants to the king in all judgments for many ages before and after, and neither then nor for many years after King Edward the Confessor's time, was the common law come to be a profession, nor lawyers made judges or pleaders. In former times the most learned clerks were best studied in the laws, so the clergy thrust into almost all places of judicature; when it was said, *Nullus clericus nisi causidicus.* But King Edward the First, after the conquest, being, as it is said, weary of the great power of the chief justice of England, was the

ever, successfully resisted by the laity, and the contest at length terminated in the secession of the clergy from the courts of justice, which they had occupied both as judges and advocates. The firm temper which the nobility and laity in general, discovered upon this occasion, does not appear to have subsided even at the distance of more than a century, when it was declared, "That the realm of England hath never been unto this hour, neither, by the consent of our lord the king and the lords of Parliament, shall it ever be, ruled, or governed, by the civil law." "Parceque le roialme d'Engleterre n'étoit devant ces heures, ne à l'entent du roy notre seignior, et seigniors du Parlement, unques ne sera rulé ne governé par la loy civil."—PARL. WESTMON. *Feb.* 3, 1379.

In the succeeding reign, liberty seems to have made a further progress by the revival of the ancient trial by jury. It was not, however, till the reign of King John that those discontents broke out, which the policy of the two Henries had contrived to smother; a weak and tyrannical prince,* whose mind, enfeebled

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first that altered that course, by making laymen judges, who kept the robes of the former judges, as they do to this day; and then the common law came to be a profession and a study, and students of laws to be pleaders in courts, and after to be judges; and from that time the common law by degrees is grown to that height we now see it is come to.—*Vindication of the Institution of the Court of Chancery.*

* As the reputation of the Roman prelates grew up in these blind ages, so grew up in them withal a desire of amplifying their power, that they might be as great in temporal forces, as men's opinions have formed them in spiritual matters.—RALEIGH.

King John, in the thirteenth year of his reign, being in extreme fear of both the pope and the French king, and especially of his own subjects, sent ambassadors to *Admiralius Murmelinus*, great Emperor of Turkey, to offer to be of his religion, and to make his kingdom tributary to him, and he and his subjects to be vassals to him,

by superstition, and rendered more despotic by the exercise of uncontrolled power, contrived to unite the nobility of his kingdom so completely against him, that, when the standard of rebellion was set up, he was forsook even by his courtiers, and, with the

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and to hold his kingdom of him; but that infidel great prince (as a thing unworthy of a king to deny his religion and betray his kingdom) utterly refused to accept the offer. King John, in the fourteenth year of his reign, by his charter (15th May), through the persuasion and threats of the pope's commissary, *Pandulphus*, surrendered his kingdoms of England and Ireland to Pope Innocent III. *cum communi consilio baronum*, as he inserted therein, and that thenceforward he would hold his crown as fœdary to the pope, paying for both the kingdoms 1000 marks. Whereupon he did homage and fealty to the pope, by the hand of *Pandulphus*, at whose feet he laid also the royal ensigns, his sceptre, sword, and ring; all which was afterwards accepted, approved, and ratified by the pope by his bull, which was called *Bulla aurea.*

Pope Gregory demanded arrears of Edward I. *Rex respondet, se sine prelatis et proceribus regni non posse respondere, et quòd jurejurando in coronatione sua fuit astrictus, quòd jura regni sui servaret illibata, nec aliquid quòd diadema tangat regni ejusdem absque ipsorum requisit, concilio faceret.*

In the fortieth year of Edward III. the pope also demanded homage and arrears, with a threat, that if they were not paid he would proceed against the king. Edward called his court of Parliament, where it was resolved, That King John, nor any other, could not put himself, or his kingdoms, or his people, in such subjection, without the assent of them, the Lords and Commons in Parliament: That if he had done this, it was without their consent, and against his coronation oath; and that if the pope should attempt to enforce the demand, they would resist with all their power. This noble and prudent king took the fairest and surest way to give satisfaction; whereof the pope being certified, the matter hath ever since rested in quiet.—And it is declared in full Parliament (RO. PARL. 42*d Edw.* III. *nu.* 7), upon demand made of them in behalf of the king, That they could not assent to anything in Parliament that tended to the disherison of the king and his crown, whereunto they were sworn.—4 INST. 13, 14.

It may be amusing to some of our readers if we transcribe a curious anecdote relating to this prince, who, disappointed of the throne of France by the brave resistance of the garrison of Calais, resolved to take revenge, and demanded six of the principal inhabitants of that place to be led to him with halters about their necks, as a due

few attendants who had not deserted him, was compelled to submit himself to the disposal of his injured subjects. It was under these circumstances that he signed the Charter of the Forest at Runnemede, by which the most intolerable and tyranni-

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atonement for the crime of resistance to their lawful sovereign, as he chose to style himself. The governor, Eustace Saint Pierre, first of all voluntarily and cheerfully gave himself up as a ransom for the city; "and I doubt not," says he, "there are many here as ready, nay more zealous for this martyrdom than I can be, however modesty and the fear of imputed ostentation may withhold them from being foremost in exhibiting their merits."—"Yes there are!" exclaimed his son.—"Ah, my child!" exclaimed St. Pierre, "I am then twice sacrificed——but no—I have rather begotten thee a second time. Thy years are few, but full, my son; the victim of virtue has reached the utmost purpose and goal of mortality.—Who next, my friends? This is the hour of heroes."—"Your kinsman!" cried James Wissant.—"Your kinsman!" cried Peter Wissant.—"Ah!" exclaimed Sir Walter Mauny, bursting into tears, "why was I not a citizen of Calais?"

The sixth victim was still wanting, but was supplied by lot from numbers who were emulous of so ennobling an example.

The keys of the city were then delivered to Sir Walter. He took the six prisoners into his custody; but before they departed, the citizens desired permission to take their last adieu of their deliverers. What a parting! what a scene! They crowded, with their wives and children, about St. Pierre and his fellow prisoners. They embraced, they fell prostrate before them—they groaned—they wept aloud; and the clamour of their mourning passed the gates of the city, and was heard throughout the camp.

At length St. Pierre and his fellow victims appeared under the conduct of Sir Walter and his guard. All the tents of the English were instantly emptied; the soldiers poured from all parts, and arranged themselves on each side, to admire this little band of patriots as they passed. They murmured their approbation and applause of that virtue which they could not but revere even in enemies, and they regarded those ropes which encompassed their necks, as ensigns of greater dignity than that of the British Garter.

As soon as they had reached the royal presence, "MAUNY," said the king, "are these the principal inhabitants of *Calais?*"—"They are," says Mauny; "they are not only the principal men of Calais, they are the principal men of France, my lord, if virtue has any share in the act of ennobling."—"Were they delivered peaceably?" says

cal parts of the forest laws were softened or abolished. But the most important advance towards the establishment of public liberty was, the obtaining from him that famous charter, which, on account of its superior and extensive importance, was denominated *Magna Charta.* By this charter a written law was substituted for those general maxims of right or policy, upon which the privileges of the subject, and the duties of the prince, are supposed to depend. The rights of the individual to protection both in his person and property, are clearly ascertained by the admission and consent of both parties, and the great and leading objects of political association settled. It would seem almost impracticable for human ingenuity to carry these points much higher.

Nullus liber homo capiatur, vel imprisonetur, vel dissesiatur de libero tenemento suo, vel libertatibus, vel liberis consuetudinibus suis, aut utlagetur, aut exuletur, aut aliquo modo destruatur, nec

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Edward, "was there no resistance, no commotion among the people?"—"Not in the least, my lord. They are self-delivered, self-devoted, and come to offer up their inestimable heads as an ample equivalent for the ransom of thousands." The king, who was incensed at the difficulty of the siege, ordered them to be carried to immediate execution, nor could all the remonstrances of his courtiers divert him from his purpose. But what neither a regard to his own interest and honour, the dictates of justice, nor the feelings of humanity, could effect, was accomplished by the influence of conjugal affection. The queen, who was then advanced in pregnancy, being informed of the particulars respecting the six victims, flew into her husband's presence, threw herself on her knees before him, and, with tears in her eyes, besought him not to stain his character with an indelible mark of infamy, by committing such a barbarous deed. Edward could refuse nothing to a wife whom he so tenderly loved, and especially in her situation. The queen, not satisfied with having saved the lives of the six burghers, conducted them to her tent, where she applauded their virtue, regaled them plentifully, and having made them a present of money and clothes, sent them back to their fellow citizens.

super eum mittemus, nisi per legale judicium parium suorum, vel per legem terræ. Nulli vendemus, nulli negabimus, aut differemus justiciam, vel rectum.—MAGNA CHART. *cap.* xxxix. 40.

At this period, the Court of Common Pleas, which had been ambulatory, and removable with the king's household from one part of the kingdom to another, was fixed to a certain spot,* viz. to the palace of Westminster only. This circumstance led to an association of the lay professors of law, who, employing their joint abilities in its perfection, formed themselves into a regular and separate order, and gave to the study of the common law the appearance of a liberal and enlightened science. It was perhaps fortunate that this incident should occur about the period of which we are now speaking, otherwise the zeal and activity with which the clergy continued to introduce the civil in opposi-

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* *Communia placita non sequantur curiam nostram, sed teneantur in aliquo loco certo.*—MAGNA CHARTA, *cap.* xvii.

The four courts, then included in one court, called *Aula Regis*, did follow the king's court, whereupon they were afterwards called courts: but by the Great Charter granted by King John, and after by King Henry III. in the third year of his reign, which he renewed with some alterations in the ninth year, being the eighteenth year of his age, the Common Pleas was appointed to be holden in a place certain, and not to follow the king's court; yet the chancellors and judges of the King's Bench did long after follow the king's court, as appeareth by the statute *Articuli super Chartas*, 28th Edw. I. c. 7.

Speaking of the common law, or the laws which our histories so often mention under the name of the laws of Edward the Confessor, Blackstone observes, "These "are the laws that so vigorously withstood the repeated attacks of the civil law; which "established in the twelfth century a new Roman empire over most of the states of the "continent, states that have lost, and perhaps upon that account, their political liberties; "while the free constitution of England, perhaps on the same account, has been rather "improved than debased."

tion to the common law, might have led to the entire neglect of the latter.

The learning of this period was likewise principally confined to the clergy, and the papal church was not satisfied with merely extending a spiritual supremacy over its less enlightened subjects *(vide note page* 168), the dark cloud drawn over the human mind by Catholic superstition, and the violent convulsions caused throughout the continent of Europe by the feudal system of government, produced an effect equally strong in this country. Imperial Rome, who, in the days of her republic, and during the tyranny of her own Cæsars, had known nothing of either, came at last to dictate in both. The eagle, grown blind with age, could soar no longer, and the standard upon which it was displayed, was torn down and destroyed with impunity by northern and eastern barbarians, who, subdued in their turn by church policy, bowed their necks to the figure of the cross. Under this standard the Roman pontiffs governed mankind more imperiously, from the Baltic to the Caspian sea, without a single legion, than the senate, the consuls, the dictators, and the emperors, had heretofore done with forty to support them.

Under the long reign of King John's son, the people became better acquainted with their own importance, from the succession of differences which arose between Henry and his nobles. Courted, because necessary to both parties, they were alternately rewarded by each with the accession of new privileges: they obtained a confirmation of the Great Charter, and likewise the acquisition of important rights by the statutes of Merton and of Marlebridge.

The reign of Edward I. forms a noble and interesting æra in the progress of our legislation. It does not require the authority of Sir Matthew Hale to convince the intelligent observer, how rapid an improvement our laws received during the reign of our English Justinian. Sir Edward Coke is indeed lavish in his panegyric upon this period, asserting, that the statutes enacted during his reign, were more constant, standing, and durable, than any which had been since made. Blessed with an enlightened mind and cultivated understanding, succeeding to a weak and tyrannical prince, whose injustice had rendered the people unhappy, he endeavoured to heal the wounds which had been inflicted, and to conciliate the affection of his subjects. Sensible how important to the attainment of these objects was the upright administration of justice, he took immediate steps to bring the judges who had become corrupt, before his Parliament; and all of them, except two, being convicted, were fined and removed. This was an important step towards restraining a refractory nobility, and restoring confidence to the people. He bestowed a considerable portion of his time to the study of jurisprudence, settled the jurisdiction of his several courts, and completed the division of the Exchequer into four separate and distinct courts. He fixed the mode of process; and as, by means of a professional fiction, business might be carried from one court to another, they naturally became rivals and checks upon each other. It is to him we are indebted for the establishment of perhaps the most useful body of men in this or any other country, justices of the peace. He abolished the dangerous office of chief justiciary, and appointed more to be judges in criminal causes. He has

the honour of being the first Christian prince who restrained the exorbitant and unalienable acquisitions of the church, by the statute of mortmain. But what adds in a greater degree to the celebrity of his reign, was, the calling for the first time the deputies from the towns and boroughs to Parliament. It is, in fact, from this æra we may date the origin of the popular branch of our constitution: for although, during the reign of King John, there are some writs extant, by which knights of shires were summoned, yet this appears to be the first time the sheriffs were ordered to invite the *towns* and *boroughs* to send deputies. If at this period the representatives of the people were not clothed with the power or privileges which they have since acquired, yet we cannot be insensible to the important advantage the people even at this time obtained, from the right of assembling in a legal way, to state their grievances at the foot of the throne; thereby acquiring such an influence over the motions of government, as rendered them every day more and more important, and at length terminated in their becoming a part of the government itself. But liberty made a still more important stride during this reign; and if Magna Charta was wrested from the imbecility of John, to protect the personal freedom of those who obtained it, the statute *De Tallagio non concedendo*, was obtained from the greatness of Edward, to protect and give security to the Great Charter itself. By this statute it was enacted, *Nullum tallagium vel auxilium, per nos, vel heredes nostros, in regno nostro ponatur seu levetur, sine voluntate et assensu archiepiscoporum, episcoporum, comitum, baronum militum, burgensium, et aliorum liberorum hominum de regno nostro.*—Stat. ann. 24 Ed. I.

The Great Charter was also confirmed no less than eleven times during his reign; and the statute *Confirmatio Cartarum*, directing it to be allowed as part of the common law, passed in his twenty-fifth year.

It was at this period the beauty of the constitution began to appear, when the mutual checks which resulted from the dignity of the crown, the influence of the nobles, and the power of the people, began to operate: for although during a long interval of weak princes, such as Edward II. Richard II. and Henry VI. the English laws were susceptible of little amelioration; and little improvement was to be expected in juridical matters under such warlike princes as Henry IV. Henry V. and Edward IV. yet their reigns afford continual instances of the increasing power of the commons, and the seeds of their greatness (which are before noticed) began to germinate with considerable strength.

Their first effort was under Edward II. when the bills for subsidies were accompanied with petitions. To Edward III. they declared their resolution not to acknowledge any law, to which they had not expressly assented. It was during this reign the commons exerted a new privilege, which not only contributes in an eminent degree to the preservation of public liberty, but in the exercise of which, at this moment, consists one of the greatest balances of the constitution—*the impeachment of ministers for mal-administration.* The disgrace of Latimer and Neville, besides persons of inferior note, shews the value as well as the extent of the inquisitorial power even at this early period. We may, likewise, form a tolerable opinion of the influence which the representatives of the people had obtained, from the arbitrary attempts made by ministers, in the succeeding reign, to influence

their elections. We must not forget to mention, that one of the most popular statutes ever enacted by any prince, was that which passed in the twenty-fifth year of this reign, limiting to three principal heads the cases of high treason, which were before vague, ambiguous, and indefinite: indeed the limitations of this statute (which still remains in force) were so exceedingly strict, that the lawyers of after times have been bold enough to enlarge them. In this reign, likewise, the practice of suspending justice by particular warrants was one of the complaints of the commons, and the pressing of men and ships formed another item in their catalogue of grievances. In the reign of Henry IV. they went so far as to refuse supplies before an answer was given to their complaints.

The succeeding reign was too much occupied with foreign wars to admit leisure for the consideration of many new laws; and during the reign of Henry VI. the contest between the Houses of York and Lancaster almost entirely suspended the laws already in existence. At length the dawn of internal peace seemed to promise a return of happier scenes under Henry VII. who united the two families by marriage; but the specious virtues of this prince were infinitely less the effect of nature than of art, and his chief merit seems to have been the management of his revenue with prudence and economy. If during the horrors of civil war, and amidst the din of arms, we are not to look for juridical improvements, or even a strict observance of established forms; yet it might have been reasonably expected, that the people, but just relieved from scenes of mutual slaughter and desolation, would have been at least indulged in the enjoyment of their liberty, without annoyance from the hand which they had bled

to support: but Henry had resentments to gratify, as well as promises to fulfil; and when he ascended the throne, he beheld the nobility of his kingdom almost exterminated, and his subjects fatigued, harassed, and unresisting: but even under such circumstances we find the early part of this reign disgraced with plots, treasons, insurrections, and impostures, which may furnish some excuse for the severities that were practised. This monarch appears to have entertained the most judicious plan of restraining his nobility and the clergy, not so much by depressing them to an inferior standard, as by raising the intermediate classes between them and the populace to a higher rank; for this purpose, we find, that he not only extended every encouragement to commerce, but that he never once omitted to secure the rights of the merchant in his treaties with foreign powers. What perhaps contributed much more to the ultimate completion of this object, was, the act by which the nobility were enabled to sell their estates; a law extremely popular with the commons, and by no means disagreeable to the nobles, as it afforded them an immediate source for indulging their taste for ostentation and prodigality, and the effect of it attaching upon their posterity, was too remote from their present feelings to make its policy objectionable.

The succeeding reign presents a picture of liberty in so deplorable a state, as to excite an idea, that the period was arrived in which it was to experience the same fate it had done in France, and indeed upon almost the whole continent of Europe. The treasures of the late king, which had been artfully collected and carefully hoarded, were dissipated in ridiculous pageants, criminal pleasures, or expeditions foolishly employed: money must therefore be raised, and to this end the people were

again consulted, and for some time cajoled. Wolsey, the crafty minister, first obtained a considerable sum under the title of a *benevolence*, which, to the circumstance of its being an extortion, superadded the mortification of being considered as a free gift. But this resource being exhausted, the king was obliged again to address himself to the representatives of the people, who only granted half the supplies demanded; they even went so far as to refuse to permit Wolsey to be heard in the house upon the subject, having resolved, That none could be permitted to sit or argue there, but such as had been elected members. Even when the spirit of freedom has been extinguished, the tamest subjects have been found to resist an unusual attack upon their property, particularly when insult has accompanied injury; and thus a feeling of national honour, and a regard for public liberty, have sometimes arisen out of the less honourable sense of private interest. But whatever may have been the causes that produced it, we cannot but admire the constancy with which the commons, even during this reign, vindicated their right to refuse subsidies; a right which was destined to prove the instrument of their own preservation, and also of the liberties of the people. In this respect they seem to have departed from the servile obedience to the will of the crown, which in other respects governed their proceedings; particularly in that "*amazing heap of wild and new-fangled treasons*," which during his reign disgraced the statute books of this kingdom; laws, respecting which the most extraordinary circumstance is, that a body of men could ever be induced to give their consent to them. Henry, however, found a more ample fund to recruit his exhausted exchequer, in the suppression of religious houses, and the sequestration of all

the monastic revenues, which were calculated to amount to at least one twentieth part of the national income, or above 160,000*l.* per annum.

But waste and prodigality soon disposed of what ingenuity and rapine had accumulated, and however wide this monarch had extended his prerogative, it remained with the commons to provide the means of supporting it: indeed he appears to have carried the despotism of the crown to a most astonishing length; it was even enacted, that the proclamations of the king should have the force of law, according to that principle of the Roman code, L. i. lib. i. tit. 4. dig. *Quòd principi placuerit legis habet vigorem*; or in the old French, *Que veut le roy, ce veut la voy.* By this act public liberty would seem to have received a blow from which it could scarcely recover; but the political rights of the people being inseparably connected with the rights of property, and the power of supplying the wants of the crown being the privilege of the commons, and one to which they clung as to a last plank in the wreck of every thing else, enabled them, in more favourable times, to lead the constitution back to its old limits, and to raise more effectual barriers against future usurpations. Accordingly we find, in the short reign of Edward VI. this act, as well as those absurd and tyrannical laws against treason, were abolished.

We hasten over the fanaticism of Mary's reign, and the complicated miseries which her cruelty and bigotry brought upon the nation, by turning religion back to its primitive abuses.

The restoration of the Protestant religion under Elizabeth, brought with it a greater degree of toleration; but the hand

of arbitrary power still pressed hard upon the people, and nothing but the brilliant achievements of her reign, the dangers which the nation experienced from abroad, and the degree of personal affection which attached her subjects to this great princess, could have made them endure, or have rendered them even passive under the tyranny which she exercised to the very verge of despotism. As if the Star Chamber was not vested with power sufficiently oppressive, the inquisitorial tribunal of the High Commission was instituted. But the veil which had been thrown over her arbitrary and oppressive measures by the brilliancy of her reign, and the glory which attended it, was effectually removed in the succeeding reigns. The Stuarts, in consequence of a less violent exertion of prerogative, were doomed to atone for their indiscretions in a way that will hereafter teach an awful lesson both to princes and to the people. A spirit of opposition displayed itself during the reign of James I. which gave strong symptoms of that returning love of liberty, which had only been smothered, but not destroyed, in the people, and which, at the commencement of the succeeding reign, presented a gloomy and most formidable aspect. The Protestant religion too became identified as it were with the same spirit of liberty, and mingled itself with the politics of the people: the prerogatives of the sovereign were examined with the same freedom they had been accustomed to exercise towards the Romish religion, and as the latter had proved unable to bear the test, so the unlimited supremacy of the former was not likely to be tolerated. After assenting to the Petition of Right, and the act by which the compulsory taxes, disguised under the veil of *benevolences*, were declared to be contrary to law, after arbitrary imprisonments and martial law were abolished,

after the court of High Commission and the Star Chamber were suppressed, and the constitution freed from the apparatus of despotic powers with which the two Henries had obscured it, there was nothing left to which a monarch might be supposed to cling, or for which he might be warranted to contend at the risk of his crown and the hazard of his life: but the ambition of private individuals, and the fanaticism of persecuting sects, uniting, induced the unfortunate Charles to preserve an unbending dignity, and drove him to a resistance which he had not adequate means, in the love or loyalty of his subjects, to support; even the private virtues of the prince were insufficient to protect him, in the contempt and disregard of his public duties.

In vain was a republic endeavoured to be planted on the ruins of royalty: power, the object and pursuit of the many, was doomed to shift hands with precipitancy; attached for a short time to the democratic leaders of the long Parliament, it soon passed to a protector, and thence became parcelled out to military adventurers. The good sense of the nation having enabled it to recover from the fanaticism which had produced these extensive evils, eagerly returned to that order of things, a deviation from which had caused so much blood to flow; and the return of Charles II. was welcomed with enthusiasm and rapture.

It was natural to suppose, that the misfortunes of his father, and the lessons he had received in the school of adversity, would at least have taught this monarch to avoid the rock upon which his parent had been wrecked; but he came to the throne with notions of arbitrary power, and ideas of the royal prerogative, very different from those which were entertained by his subjects,

and very inconsistent with his own happiness as the monarch of a free people: but the eagerness of his measures destroyed their effect, and liberty made her greatest efforts under the auspices of a sovereign and a family most inimical to her existence. The military services due to the crown were remitted, the laws against heretics repealed, and the Habeas Corpus act, which is considered (and properly so) as a second Great Charter, was finally established, and made an effectual barrier to secure the personal liberty of the subject. All this was done with a family upon the throne, whose endeavours were constantly and uniformly directed to increase the power, and to extend the prerogatives, of the crown.

At length James II. ascended the throne, and, in a manner still more open and undisguised, pursued the projects which had proved so fatal to his predecessors: not satisfied with endeavouring to establish a right in himself to dispense with the laws, he would have subverted the Protestant religion, which the people had so often and so zealously bled to maintain; and upon the ruins of it would have planted that system of religious faith, the principal doctrines of which supported the most unqualified notions of arbitrary power. The liberties of the people being thus attacked in their first principles, they had recourse to that remedy which reason and nature seem to point out, when the guardian of the laws becomes the destroyer of them. *They withdrew their allegiance;* and as if to cease to reign was the natural consequence of such a conduct, and as if such a situation had been actually provided for by the constitution, or by the principles of government, every thing else remained in its place: the throne alone was declared vacant; a new line of succession was established, and the Prince

of Orange was invited to the throne by the voice of the nation. Under such circumstances, it is a subject of the highest admiration and astonishment, to observe with what moderation and temper this revolution was effected, and how much caution was employed to avoid trampling upon those rights and privileges of sovereignty, without which the crown cannot long remain an honour to the chief magistrate of a country, or be rendered useful to the people themselves. It was declared, That to impose taxes without the assent of the commons, or to keep a standing army in time of peace, was contrary to law. The Bill of Rights was framed, and received the royal assent; by which it was settled, that subjects, of whatever rank, had a right to present petitions to the king: and soon after, the liberty of the press was established, by the refusal of Parliament any longer to continue the restraints which had been imposed upon it. At this noble æra of our legislation the true principles of civil society were not only understood in theory, but practically established; and, in the words of an ingenious writer, "by the expulsion of a king who had violated his oath, the doctrine of resistance, that ultimate resource of an oppressed people, was confirmed beyond a doubt. By the exclusion of a family hereditarily despotic, it was finally determined, that nations are not the property of kings. The principles of passive obedience, the divine and indefeasible right of kings—in a word, the whole scaffolding of false and superstitious notions by which the royal authority had till then been supported, fell to the ground; and in the room of it were substituted the more solid and durable foundations of the love of order, and a sense of the necessity of civil government among mankind."

The building used by the House of Commons for their sittings,

joins to the south-east angle of Westminster Hall, and was formerly a part of the old palace. This being a free chapel, was included in the statute of 1st Edward VI. and fell into the king's hands, and was by him assigned for the sitting of the representatives of the people; who, previous to that time, had used the chapter-house belonging to the Abbey of Westminster. —STRYPE, *book* vi. *p.* 54.

"It is said to have been originally erected by King Stephen, and was rebuilt by Edward III.: but for the former of these facts no ancient authority has been produced; nor has Hatton, who, in his *New View of London*, p. 629, has asserted, that it was a chapel founded by King Stephen, anno 1141, and new built by Edward III. 1347, given any reference to support his assertion: as, however, he has so precisely mentioned the year, it cannot be supposed, that he affirmed it without sufficient warrant; and it is undoubtedly true, that those who of late years have had occasion to mention this building, have (it is believed, without a single exception), universally acquiesced in the idea, that the original edifice was erected by him. On better evidence, it is, however, known to have been existing as early as the time of King John; who, in the seventh year of his reign, 1206, granted to Baldwin de London, clerk of his exchequer, the chapelship of St. Stephen's, at Westminster, &c. At that time, therefore, or before it had been already dedicated to St. Stephen, it was probably intended as a chapel for the palace, instead of a small one used by Edward the Confessor, which occupied a part of the spot where Cotton House afterwards stood; but which might have been thought, or found too small or inelegant to suit with a royal residence, of which the present

Westminster Hall was intended but as one room. That there was a chapel in use here before the erection of this, is clear, as Hugo Flory was, in the time of William Rufus, confirmed abbot of Canterbury in the king's chapel at Westminster. As a chapel to the palace, and therefore to be maintained at the king's expence from time to time, it does not appear to have originally had any endowment; neither does there seem to have been any kind of property belonging to it till the time of its refoundation, or, more properly, its first foundation, and endowment by Edward III.

"Originally in this country, Parliament was in fact nothing more than a great council;* nor was it till the seventeenth year of King John, A.D. 1215, that any traces of its constitution, as it now exists, have been found.

"Sir William Blackstone says, that towards the end of the reign of Henry III. we find the first record of any writ for summoning knights, citizens, and burgesses to Parliament; but in another place he is more particular, and affirms, this constitu-

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* Although the king is alone invested with the power of summoning Parliament, yet he must do this at least once in three years, *16th Ch.* II. This obligation upon the king was insisted upon so early as the time of Alfred, who, in compliance with the national wish, ordained that the Wittenagemot should meet every year. It is true, that, in the early periods of our history, this assembly of the people was usually called for the purpose of assisting the king with their advice on occasions of great moment or emergency. The first of which we have any authentic account, is the public council summoned by Belinus, after he had defeated his brother Brennus:—*Convocavit omnes regni proceros intra Eboracum consilio eorum tractaturus quid de rege Dacorum faceret?*

Brute advised with the *majores natu* about matter of peace with Pandrasus.

The *magnates Britanniæ* advised King Octavius to bestow his daughter and crown

tion has subsisted, in fact, at least from the year 1266, 49th Henry III.

"Sir Edward Coke has remarked, that anciently both houses sat together; and this appears to have been the case at least so late as 6th Edward III. The surest mark of the time of the division of the two houses, is, as he says, when the House of Commons at first had a continual speaker, as at this day. After the division, he adds, the commons sat in the chapter-house of the abbot of Westminster; citing as his authority, the Parliament roll of the 50th Edward III. no. 8; and which, consequently, proves the division to have taken place before this date.

"Sir William Blackstone says, that, in the reign of Edward III. the Parliament is supposed, most probably, to have assumed its present form, by a separation of the commons from the lords;

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upon Maximinian, a Roman senator, for confirmation of peace between the Britons and Romans.

King Ethelred, by the counsel of his primates, made peace with the Danes, and gave them a yearly tribute *pro bono pacis.*

A second and third peace was made with the Danes by the same king and the senate of England, *rex et senatus Anglorum.*

In the year 1188, Richard I. made a peace with the king of France, *præsentibus episcopis et magnatibus utriusque regni.*—HARDEN, p. 765; MATT. PARIS, p. 156, 50.

Anno 1201, between King John and France it was agreed, if either king did break the peace, his barons should be absolved of their fealty.

In the year 1217, a peace was made between Henry II. and Lewis of France, by advice of their counsellors, &c.

The peace between England and Scotland, 2d Ed. III. was concluded by the Parliament at Northampton.

The matter of peace between England and France was proposed to the Parliament 5th Ed. III. Rot. Parl. nu. 2. So in 17th Ed. III. Rot. Parl. nu. 7. &c.

Where a cause of the Parliament is declared to be concerning the truce in Britain, nu. 9. it is said, that as the king attempted not war without the Parliament's assent, so without the same he would conclude no peace: whereupon the lords and commons

and that the statute for defining and ascertaining treasons was one of the first productions of this new-modelled assembly, and the translation of the law proceedings from French into Latin, another. The statute of treasons was passed 20th Edward III. and that for the translation of law proceedings into Latin, in the 36th year of the same king.

"Inconvenience in the despatch of public business must, no doubt, have been found from the distance, so long as the commons continued to sit in the chapter-house of Westminster Abbey: no wonder, therefore, a building so conveniently situated as the present House of Commons, should have been thought of for that purpose. In what manner it was at first fitted up,

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severally gave their advice, that it was good to pursue the peace. The like consultation in 18th Ed. III. Rot. Parl. nu. 6; 22d Ed. III. nu. 2; 28th Ed. III. nu. 2.

The commons, in the matter of the peace with France, do agree to the order of the king and his nobles, 28th Ed. III. Rot. Parl. nu. 58; 29th Ed. III. ib. nu. 5. 9.

Peace with the Scots denied by the lords and commons, 42d Ed. III. Rot. Parl. nu. 7.

Peace with France treated on, 43d Ed. III. Rot. Parl. nu. 1. 2; 7th Ri. II. ib. nu. 4. 16. 17. 18; 13th Ri. II. Rot. Parl. nu. 1; 14th Ri. II. ib. nu. 1; 16th Ri. II. ib. nu. 1; 17th Ri. II. ib. nu. 1; 6th Hen. IV. ib. nu. 2; 8th Hen. IV. ib. nu. 10; 3d Hen. V. ib. nu. 14; 4th Hen. V. ib. nu. 3; 14th Hen. VI. ib. nu. 1; 23d Hen. VI. ib. nu. 23. 24; and many others of the like nature in our records and histories.

In France, the first Parliaments used to treat of peace; and both there and in other nations, in their public councils, matters of peace and war were generally debated and advised upon, as being of so great weight and consequence to all men, that it was held proper for such councils.

This was done by Belinus, Brute, Cassivelaune, Arviragus, Vortigern, Aurelius, Ambrosius, Arthur, and generally by all the British, Saxon, Danish, Norman, and other kings of this nation, and of all other countries.

Consultations in Parliament touching the wars with Scotland and other parts, are in the rolls before cited, and in 6th Ed. III. Rot. Parl. nu. 6; 50th Ed. III. nu. 2; 1st Hen. IV. nu. 81; 8th Hen. IV. nu. 2; 17th Ri. II. nu. 1; 1st Hen. V. nu. 9.

is no where disclosed; but it is supposed, that the paintings, if at that time uncovered and exposed to view, were on that occasion wainscoted up; for in the seal for the Court of Common Bench at Westminster 1648, that for the Common Pleas for the county palatine of Lancaster 1648, the Parliament seal 1649, and the Dunbar medal 1650, the walls are represented with a plain wainscoting. However, it appears, that, about the year 1651, the walls were covered with tapestry hangings, probably to conceal this wainscoting: for they are so given in the perspective view of the House of Commons, on the back of the great seal of the commonwealth of England, 1651; and in this manner they continued to be decorated down to the time of Queen Anne, in whose reign Sir Christopher Wren was employed to repair the building, and fit up its inside with galleries.

"In the year 1800, the number of members of the House of Commons being increased from 558 to 658, in consequence of the act of Parliament for uniting the two kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland, the building itself was thought too small for their reception. The original side walls, between the piers, were three feet thick; and it was therefore found, that by erecting on the same foundation, but so as to range with the external extremity of the old, other walls of less dimensions, as being only one foot thick, the building might be considerably enlarged internally, and sufficient room be obtained; and this plan was accordingly determined on.

"On removing the wainscoting, as a preparatory step to take down these walls, a discovery was made, of which no one had any suspicion; namely, that the stone walls had been originally

Engd. by Rowlandson, delt. et sculp.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

painted with a variety of subjects, and that many of them were still in such a perfect state as to admit of their being copied and engraven.

"To describe the building more particularly, it must be said, that it is of an oblong shape, and measures about ninety feet in length by about thirty in width, internal measure; having externally at each corner an octagonal tower. It consists of five windows on each side, about twelve feet six inches wide; and between each a pier of about five feet six inches in width, formed on the outside into a flying buttress, nearly three feet six inches thick, and extending in the whole about ten feet from the wall of the building. It contained likewise two stories; the height of the upper story (now the House of Commons), from the floor to the top of the battlement of the cornice, just under the springing of the roof, was about forty-two feet; and the height of the under chapel, before the ground was raised, was about twenty feet, making together sixty-two feet. In the lower, which was on the same level with the pavement of the street, was formerly the chapel of St. Mary in the Vaults; but part of it has been inclosed, to contain a stove for warming the House of Commons above, part is used for other immaterial purposes, and the greater part of it now constitutes the speaker's state dining-room.

"Of this very beautiful and magnificent building it is not too much to say, that no edifice existing at the time of its erection, in any part of the world, can, in any degree, be compared with it; nor is it supposed, that any of later times can be produced at all equal to it in point of splendour of decoration; unless, indeed, it may be the church of St. Peter, at Rome. The church

of Santa Sophia, at Constantinople, now a Turkish mosque, and therefore scarcely accessible, is commended (and deservedly, as it seems from the representations of Grelot, who procured admission at the risk of his life, and whose fidelity has been well attested,) for its internal beauty and splendour, arising from the ornaments in mosaic on its walls; but it cannot, it is imagined, be justly deemed, in this respect, a rival to the chapel of St. Stephen."

The House of Commons is plainly and neatly fitted up, and accommodated with galleries, supported by slender iron pillars, adorned with Corinthian capitals and sconces; from the middle of the ceiling hangs a handsome branch or lustre. At the upper end, the speaker is placed upon a raised seat, ornamented behind with Corinthian columns, and the imperial arms, carved and placed on a pediment; before him is a table, at which the clerk and his assistants sit. Just below the chair, and on each side, as well below as in the galleries, the members seat themselves promiscuously. The speaker and clerks always wear gowns in the house, as also the professors of the law in term time; but no other of the members wear robes, except the four representatives for the city of London, who, the first day of every new Parliament, are dressed in scarlet gowns, and sit on the right hand of the chair, next to the speaker.

The Parliament sits upon any day except on Sundays, or other high festivals, or fast days, when it is not usual to assemble, unless upon the most urgent occasions: but though the speaker always adjourns the house to nine o'clock of the morning of the day when they agree to meet again, the house seldom meets before noon.

This house has concurrent power with the lords in all matters of legislation, and no law can be made without their united consent.*

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* The forms of passing acts of Parliament have varied at different periods. About the year 1400, it appears from the rolls, that most of the laws were then preferred to the king by way of petition, and the lords, at the sitting down of their house, appointed receivers and triers of petitions; but in those times, after the petitions were received, and had passed both houses, they were ingrossed by the clerk into one roll, and so presented to the king. After the end of the Parliament, all those acts which the king had assented unto, and were to be published as statutes, were extracted into another roll, and transcripts made of them under the great seal of England, and sent to every sheriff, to be proclaimed in their several counties, printing being not then invented.

But these forms of passing bills in Parliament were altered in King Henry the Seventh's time, when petitions were so many and of such length, that they could not well be comprehended in one roll: then every petition was changed into the form of an act, and made in English (which before was in French or in Latin), and presented by itself; and if the king did not assent unto it, it was laid aside, and not entered upon the statute roll: and since printing came up, there hath been no use of any such second roll, to collect the acts to which the king had assented, nor of making any such transcripts, for the sheriff to publish them, the print supplying that turn.

For the principal information which relates to St. Stephen's Chapel, we acknowledge ourselves indebted to Mr. Smith's *Antiquities of the City of Westminster;* a work which every man who feels an interest in the history of the arts, and their early introduction and progress in this island, will peruse with pleasure and satisfaction. To this work we beg to refer such of our readers as may be desirous of obtaining more information respecting the antiquities of St. Stephen's Chapel, and the curious remains of ancient painting *in oil*, and of architecture (which were unexpectedly discovered upon its late alteration), than the design or limits of this work will permit us to extract. We shall only at present add a short account given in the *Gentleman's Magazine* about the time of the discovery being made.

"The Gothic pillars, the finished scroll-work, and the laboured carving, are in good preservation; but what is more observable is, that the paintings which fill the interstices, having been protected from the action of the air for so many centuries, are in many parts as fresh and vivid as if they could only boast a twelvemonth's date. In the right hand corner, behind the speaker's chair, and about five feet from the ground, there is a virgin and child, with Joseph bending over them, tolerably executed in colour; and Edward III. and his queen and suit, making their offerings. Under them, in six niches,

are as many knights in armour, with their tabards of arms; and in each angle an acolyte, holding a taper. Adjoining this, and on the same level, are two angels, their heads reclining on the shoulders, and holding each, extended before, a piece of drapery or mantle, charged with various devices or armorial bearings; their wings composed of peacock's feathers, very highly finished, and the green and gold, in general, as lively as if newly laid on. The gilding of the cornices, which are very richly decorated, is equally fresh. On each side of the altar are pictures of the *Nativity*, *Preservation in the Temple*, *Marriage at Cana*, and a fourth, in which the devil is introduced coming through the air, perhaps representing the *Temptation*. Adjoining, on the south wall, are three beautiful stone stalls, with rich flowered arches; and west of them, a narrower one, reaching below them. Over the figures, on each side, on an inverted frieze, are arms of the royal family and nobility, in eighteen shields, between which are grotesque figures of men and animals. On the opposite side of the chapel, are figures of men in complete armour, with inscriptions under them, two of which are legible, "*Eustace*" and "*Mercure*," in black-letter characters. The interior roof is enriched with the most laboured minutiæ of ornament; but not having been covered like the lower parts, offers a very faint idea of the superb finishing and expensive decoration of this beautiful building."—GENTLEMAN'S MAGAZINE.

Having brought the history of our constitution down to the Revolution, it is proposed to conclude the subject, when, in the progress of our plan, we have to notice the HOUSE OF LORDS.

COURT OF CHANCERY.
LINCOLN'S INN HALL.

THE COURT OF CHANCERY

LINCOLN'S INN HALL

THE Court of Chancery is represented in the plate during the sittings in vacation, which are held here by permission of the honourable society. This hall, which is a fine Gothic structure, is sixty-two feet long by thirty-two feet wide. It was built in the time of Henry VII. about the year 1506: the lantern was added anno 1602. It is a noble, well-proportioned room: at the upper end is a painting by Hogarth, which represents St. Paul preaching before Felix.

The windows and panels are ornamented with the arms of the several law dignitaries and others who have been eminent members of the society of Lincoln's Inn.

In term-time, the business of this court is transacted in the Court of Chancery at Westminster Hall. The lord high chancellor is the sole judge. It has its name Chancery, "*Cancellaria*," from the judge, or *cancellarius*, who presides. It is curious to observe the different etymologies which have been assigned to this word. It was objected to Carinus (the Roman emperor, A.D. 384), that he made one of his door-keepers (*cancellarius*) governor of the city; and Gibbon shrewdly observes, that this

word, so humble in its original, has, by a singular fortune, rose into the title of the first great office of state in the monarchies of Europe. See also Casauban, and Salmasius, *ad Hist. August.* p. 253. Some of the learned are of opinion, that this court derived its name from the cross bars of iron or wood, called by the Romans *cancelli*, with which it was formerly inclosed, to prevent the officers being incommoded by the crowding of the people. Sir Edward Coke (4 *Inst.* 83.) derives it *a cancellando*, from cancelling the king's patents granted contrary to law. Sir W. Blackstone observes, that the office was certainly known in the courts of the Roman emperors, and seems originally to have signified a chief scribe or secretary. We confess ourselves ignorant of the authorities from which this conclusion is drawn. The office of prætor may be supposed to form a very adequate model of our lord high chancellor; but that office differed widely from a scribe or secretary, and certainly did not at all assimilate with that of the Roman *cancellarius*.

The Romans, for a considerable period, knew no other justice but what consisted in a literal and inflexible administration of their few primary laws. At length they became sensible, that the law, judging only by general principles, required sometimes to be moderated in particular cases, by that equity which springs from the variety and diversity of circumstances: it was *therefore* they created prætors, to whom was assigned the cognizance of certain actions condemned by the law, but favoured by equity, such as entire restitutions, exceptions of deceit, of fear, of minority, suits concerning wills, substitution, &c.

By the law *Prætoria*, they were to *supply* and *correct* the laws. —Varro, *lib.* v. *de Ling. Lat.*

By the law *Cornelia*, they were punishable if they did not judge according to equity.—CICERO, *Phil.* ii.

In the empire it was said to the chancellor, "*Fasces tibi judicium parent, et dum jussa prætorianæ sedis portare crederis, ipsam quodammodo potestatem reverendus assumis.*"

And again, "*Persona tua refugium sit oppresso, infirmo defensio, præsidium aliqua calamitate concluso; sic enim propriè nostros cancellos agitis, si læsorum impia claustra solvatis.*"—SPELMAN'S *Gloss.* p. 126, in which he cites Cassiodorus (lib. xii. formul. i.) who wrote about twelve hundred years ago.

From the Roman empire it passed to the Roman church, and when the modern kingdoms and principalities of Europe were established upon the ruins of the empire, almost every state preserved this office; and even subjects that had *jura regalia*, had likewise their chanceries and chancellors. The counties palatine in England have them to this day, and the lords marchers had them before the statute of Wales, 27th Henry VIII.

Neither can we subscribe to the opinion of Sir W. Blackstone, who, speaking of the reigns of Edward I. and Henry II. says, that "in these early times, the chief juridical employment of the chancellor must have been in devising new writs directed to the courts of common law, to give remedy in cases where none was before administered."

In answer to this it has been well observed, that the antiquity and dignity of the persons and office of chancellor, leave us no ground to suppose that the Chancery was merely an *officina*, to seal writs and commissions for the law courts to proceed upon. In proof of which it is urged, that Wilsinus was chancellor to King Athelstan; that Turketullus was chancellor to King Edward

the Elder, and to King Edmund and Edred (*vide* INGULPHUS); Adulphus to King Edgar; Alsius, abbot of Ely, to King Etheldred; that King Alfred had a Court of Chancery, 4 Inst. out of the *Mirror*, cap. i. sec. 3. and cap. 5. who saith, that it was ordained by King Alfred in Parliament, that every man should have a writ remedial out of the King's Chancery: which, it may be, the author (Andrew Horn) meant of such a course *to send for the parties* as was then used; for if he meant writs under seals, as they issued out of the Chancery in King Edward the Second's time, when he wrote, clearly he was mistaken; for there could be no writs under seals in King Alfred's days, neither he nor any of the former Saxon kings using any, for seals came in with the Normans. The Saxon kings' manner was, to subscribe their names and crosses to charters (INGULPHUS, CAMDEN, 444, SELDEN, *Titles of Honour*, 785). Some have said, that King Edward the Confessor used a seal, and that his chancellor had the custody of it; but *that* he learned in Normandy, having lived long there before he was king: and then it must necessarily follow, that the former kings having no seals, there was some other use of a chancellor and of a Court of Chancery in those days, if there were a Chancery (which cannot be shewn) distinct from the *Aula Regis*, or King's Court, where the chief justice of England, the chancellor, and the prelates and earls, were the judges.

About the reign of Edward III. the separate jurisdiction of the Chancery seems to have been better understood and ascertained. The introduction of uses of land, and their being considered as fiduciary trusts, together with the writ of *subpœna*, returnable only in this court, to make the feoffee to uses accountable to his

cestuy que use; and the unanimous concurrence of the judges, that suits *pro læsione fidei,* could not be entertained in the ecclesiastical courts, as spiritual offences against conscience, contributed to enlarge the business of the Court of Chancery in an amazing degree. At the same time, there does not appear to have been any regular judicial system prevailing, upon which its decisions were grounded, no lawyer having sat in this court from 1372 to the promotion of Sir Thomas More* by King Henry VIII. in 1530; after which the great seal was indiscriminately committed to the custody of lawyers, courtiers, or churchmen, till Serjeant Pickering was made lord keeper, in 1592; from which time to the present the Court of Chancery has always been filled by a lawyer, excepting the interval from 1621 to 1625, when the seal was entrusted to Dr. Williams, then dean of Westminster, but afterwards bishop of Lincoln, who had been chaplain to Lord Ellesmere† when chancellor. It was during the chancellorship of the latter the dispute arose with Sir Edward Coke, chief justice, respecting the jurisdiction of the courts of law and equity, which the king

* When the wife and children of Sir Thomas More urged him to make more money of his office, what was the noble reply? "Let me alone, your reputation and my life are concerned; you will be rich in the blessing of God and man." The authors who have written his life, inform us, that a nobleman who had a cause depending in Chancery, presented him with two silver flasks of exquisite workmanship. Sir Thomas sent for his butler, and said to him, "Carry that man into my cellar, and fill his two flasks with my best wine.—Friend," said he, turning to the person who brought them, "tell your master, that I beg he will not spare my wine if he likes it."

† Lord Ellesmere is remarked for having introduced great brevity in the arguments of counsel, "and affecting matter rather than affectation of words, tied the same to "laconical brevity; an honour to the court of justice, to be swayed rather by ponderous "reasons, than by fluent and deceitful speeches."

determined in favour of the Court of Chancery, and Sir Edward Coke submitted, if that may be called submission which amounted merely to a declaration reluctantly made to the king in council, *that when the case happened he would do his duty.*

To Lord Ellesmere succeeded Lord Bacon, who reduced the practice of this court into a more regular system. His successors during the reign of Charles I. made little improvement upon his plan; and even after the restoration the seal was committed to the Earl of Clarendon, who had withdrawn from the practice of a lawyer near twenty years, and afterwards to the Earl of Shaftesbury, who had never been in practice at all. Sir Hineage Finch, who succeeded in 1673, and afterwards became Earl of Nottingham, was a man of the greatest abilities and integrity: in the course of nine years he built up a system of jurisprudence and jurisdiction upon wide and rational foundations, which have been extended and improved by many great men who have since presided in Chancery; among these none has shone with a lustre superior to Lord Hardwicke.* Posterity will do ample justice

* This great man, who was born at Dover, owed his fortune to his own merit, which, from a low beginning, led him to the high office of chancellor through all the intermediate honours of the law and magistracy. Notwithstanding the importance and multiplicity of his occupations, he contrived to save an hour or two each day, and these hours thus stolen he employed in reading some favourite author. In this manner did he, in the space of three years, peruse the whole history of Thuanus, inserting in the margin observations upon such parts as appeared to him most interesting: this study was a *recreation* to him, though it would have been a *laborious occupation* for weaker heads. "I exist all day for the whole kingdom," said he to a confident of his amusements, "it is but just that the whole kingdom should grant me at least an hour, during which I may exist for myself." Who is ignorant of the works of More, Bacon, and Clarendon? the agreeableness, the extent, and depth of which are such, that one would imagine the authors had been absolute masters of uncontrolled leisure.

to the integrity, abilities, industry, and worth of those who have succeeded him; but we are perhaps too near the times in which some of them have lived, to admit the impartial voice of history; and any attempt to draw the character of our present chancellor would not only be liable to the same objection, but possibly might induce our readers to suspect, that the delineations of truth had been traced with the pencil of flattery.

"Seculum aliud non tremens expectat."

The office of chancellor is, by 5th Eliz. c. 18. declared to be the same as that of lord keeper, and is created merely by delivery of the great seal into his custody, whereby he becomes, without writ or patent, an officer of the greatest weight and power of any now subsisting in the kingdom, and superior in point of precedency to every temporal lord. He is a privy counsellor by his office, and, according to the Lord Chancellor Ellesmere, prolocutor of the House of Lords by prescription. To him belongs the appointment of all justices of the peace throughout the kingdom. He is keeper of the king's conscience, visitor in right of the king of all hospitals and colleges of the king's foundation, and patron of all the king's livings under 20*l.* per annum in the king's books. He is the guardian of all infants, idiots, and lunatics, and has the general superintendence of all charitable uses in the kingdom: and all this over and above the vast and extensive jurisdiction which he exercises in his judicial capacity in the Court of Chancery, wherein, as in the Exchequer, there are two distinct tribunals; the one being a court of common law, the other a court of equity. But if any cause comes to issue in this court, that is, if any fact be disputed between the parties,

the chancellor cannot try it, having no power to summon a jury, but must deliver the record *propriâ manu* into the King's Bench. In this legal court is likewise kept the *Officina Justitiæ*, out of which do issue all original writs that pass the great seal, and all commissions of charitable uses, sewers, bankruptcy, idiotcy, lunacy, and the like. In fact, the lord chancellor of England is, in many respects, what the prætor was at Rome; but he can neither touch acts of Parliament nor the established practice of other courts, much less reverse the judgments already passed in these latter, as the Roman prætors sometimes used to do in regard to their predecessors in office, and sometimes also in regard to their own.

The kind of process that has, in the course of time, been established in the Court of Chancery, is as follows:—After a petition is received by the court, the person sued is served with a writ of *subpœna*, to command his appearance. If he does not appear, an attachment is issued against him; if a *non inventus* is returned, a proclamation goes forth against him; then a commission of rebellion is issued, for apprehending him and bringing him to the Fleet prison. If the person sued stands farther in contempt, a serjeant at arms is to be sent out to take him; and if he cannot be taken, a sequestration of his land may be obtained till he appears. Such is the power which the Court of Chancery, as a court of equity, hath gradually acquired, to compel appearance before it. In regard to the execution of its decrees, it seems to be held as a maxim, that this court cannot bind the estate, but only the person.

From this court of equity an appeal lies to the House of Lords. But there are these differences between appeals from a court of equity, and writs of error from a court of law:

1. That the former may be brought upon any interlocutory matter; the latter upon nothing but only a definitive judgment.

2. That, on writs of error, the House of Lords pronounces the judgment; on appeals, it gives direction to the court below to rectify its own decree.

The chancellors are usually raised to the dignity of a peerage.* This employment is a sort of seminary to the House of Lords, which does them honour by supplying them with members of tried merit; and these titles, whilst they perpetuate the memory of worth, ability, and services, reflect on those to whom they are granted, and on their descendants, a lustre infinitely superior to that which they might acquire from the most remote genealogies.

Indeed, this high office is generally the reward of merit. If court favour sometimes interferes in the disposal, it has of late years only gone the length of selecting its object from amongst men of the most consummate knowledge of the law, of the greatest practice in its several departments, or of the most extraordinary talents for eloquence. It exacts from the person invested with it, a continual application and labour: public and private audiences, the business attendant on keeping the great seal, the presiding as speaker in the House of Lords, assisting at the Privy Council, and at all the public ceremonies and formalities; the discussion and examination of appeals; the attention to political affairs as a statesman, and as a principal member of administration: such are the duties which, over and above the vast and important judicial functions of his office, fill

* The present chancellor was Sir John Scott, now Lord Eldon.

in continued succession every moment of a chancellor's life. If the situation be high, enviable, and lucrative, it requires at least the sacrifice of health, time, the inferior luxuries of social enjoyment, and almost of friendly relaxation. It is a life of labour and discipline, and perpetually claims from its possessor an arduous exertion of the greatest abilities.

Pub.as N. Rowlands in, de'c. 1st 1808

COURT OF COMMON PLEAS.
WESTMINSTER HALL

COURT OF COMMON PLEAS

THIS court is situated about the middle of Westminster Hall. It is one of the four great courts of the kingdom, and, as we before noticed, was the first which was separated from the *Aula Regis*, and rendered stationary.

It is so called, because in this court are tried the usual or common pleas, which include all cases whatsoever of a civil nature between subject and subject. After this court was fixed at Westminster, so many cases were brought before it, that the king found it necessary, instead of three, to constitute six judges, who sat in two places. King James I. appointed only five; but at present the number is reduced to four, and they sit together in Westminster Hall. It is a court of record, and styled by Sir Edward Coke, "*the lock and key of the common law*," 4 *Inst.* 99; for herein only can real actions be brought. The Court of King's Bench has a concurrent jurisdiction in most personal actions; a writ of error lies from this court by way of appeal to the Court of King's Bench.

Each of the courts is adorned with a piece of tapestry, in the middle of which are the arms of England: but they are neither of them striking in their decorations; they are rather reduced to depend upon their intrinsic dignity for the admiration which they excite, particularly when visited by foreigners.

"I have seen," says an intelligent French writer with some *naïveté*, "when there was a great crowd, young persons with frocks as dirty as those who walk the streets of London, fill two or three vacant places close to the lord chief justice!"

The judges, whilst they sit upon the bench, have presented to them every day large nosegays, and these supply the place of the perquisites which these magistrates receive in other countries. In the parliaments of France, under the ancient government, nosegays were in the same manner distributed to the judges, and this distribution was called *the giving of roses.*—*See the* HISTORY OF THE PARLIAMENT.

The court is represented in the plate as employed in the examination of bail. The Israelite, with his gold-lace coat, that would "*burn for the money*," is well contrasted with his round-bellied co-bail.

How like a fawning publican he looks!——SHAKSPEARE.

There is a considerable degree of spirit and variety in the attitudes of the whole assembly, which induces a belief, that something interesting engages its attention.

Rowland & N. P. . . delt. et sculpt.

COURT OF KINGS BENCH.
WESTMINSTER HALL.

COURT OF KING'S BENCH

IS situate in the south-east corner of Westminster Hall, opposite the Court of Chancery. It is the supreme common law court in England, and is so called because the king formerly sat there in person: indeed, in all the courts the king is supposed (in contemplation of law) to be always present. This court consists of a chief justice and three *puisne judges*. After the dissolution of the *Aula Regis*, King Edward I. frequently sat in this court; and in later times, James I. who was reminded by the chief justice, that he ought not even to deliver an opinion.

The jurisdiction of this court is very high. It keeps other courts within their respective bounds, and may either remove their proceedings, or prohibit their progress: it controuls magistrates and others, and protects the liberties of the people by summary interposition. It has cognizance of both criminal and civil causes, in all actions of trespass or injuries committed *vi et armis*, actions for forgeries of deeds, maintenance, conspiracy, deceit, and in all actions upon the case whatsoever. By means of a fiction, it now holds plea of all personal actions. It is likewise a court of appeal, into which may be removed, by writ of error, the determinations of all the other courts of record

in England, and also from the Court of King's Bench in Ireland. Writs of error are usually brought in the House of Lords, against any judgments of this court.

One cannot dismiss this subject without observing upon the mildness introduced in the administration of criminal justice in this kingdom above all others: indeed, there have been writers of the first eminence, who, more sensible of the necessity of public order, than alive to the feelings of humanity, do not hesitate to say, that too many delinquents escape with impunity. Beyond that respect which is necessary to strengthen the feebleness of law, there is nothing in our criminal tribunals to excite a fear in the bosom of innocence: they are neither wrapt up in mystery, nor rendered more formidable by secrecy or darkness: every thing is open to the public; every form of procedure, every circumstance tends to the acquittal of a delinquent; even the prejudices of mankind are admitted in his favour, and he sees in the persons who are to determine his case by their verdict, those whom a similarity of rank and circumstances might engage to take an interest in his fate.

"*Valeant omnia ad salutem innocentium*," said Cicero, "*ad opem innocentium, ad auxilium calamitosorum; in periculum vero et perniciem repudientur.* All circumstances should be turned to the preservation of the innocent, to the assistance of the unfortunate; but every thing that contributes to his danger and prejudice, should be avoided."

Machiavel, on the other hand, affirms, "*That the excess of severity falls only upon a few individuals; but an excess of compassion exposes all the innocent to those violences which the law ought to prevent.*"

Rowlandson & Pugin, delt. & sculpt.

COURT OF EXCHEQUER

WESTMINSTER HALL

The voice of nature cries out, "RATHER SAVE TWENTY GUILTY PERSONS, THAN PUT ONE INNOCENT MAN TO DEATH."

The plate represents the chief justice sitting at *Nisi Prius*, and the counsel examining a witness. It is altogether a very exact representation of the objects which it professes to exhibit.

COURT OF EXCHEQUER

THE plate represents this court during a trial before the chief baron, in the sittings after term. It is not the imaginary representation of a painter, but is almost a *fac-simile*, taken at the trial of a cause a short time since. This court, in its appearance, has little to recommend it; the architecture is mean, and the place altogether little suited to its present dignified employment.

The Court of Exchequer, which is also one of the four great courts of the kingdom, is held in a room contiguous to the north-west corner of Westminster Hall, and is so named from a chequered cloth which anciently covered the table where the judges or chief officers sat. This court was first erected by William the Conqueror, for the trial of all causes relating to the revenues of the crown; and in the same court there are now also tried matters of equity between subject and subject.

The judges of this court are, the lord chief baron of the Exchequer, and three other judges, called barons of the Ex-

chequer. There is also the cursitor baron of the Exchequer, who administers the oath to the sheriffs, under-sheriffs, bailiffs, searchers, surveyors, &c. of the Customhouse; but is no judge. When at any time the barons are of different opinions concerning the decision of any cause, they call to their assistance the chancellor of the Exchequer, who decides in favour of one of the parties by his casting vote.

Long after the conquest, there sat in the Exchequer both spiritual and temporal barons; whence, in later times, those who sat there, though they were not peers, were styled barons. By their original constitution, according to Sir W. Blackstone, the jurisdiction of the several courts was entirely separate and distinct: the Common Pleas to decide all controversies between subject and subject; the King's Bench to correct all crimes and misdemeanors that amount to a breach of the peace; and the Exchequer to adjust and recover the king's revenue: but as by a fiction almost all sorts of civil actions may be brought in the King's Bench, in like manner, by another fiction, all kinds of personal actions may be prosecuted in the Court of Exchequer.

In this court, on the equity side, the clergy have long been used to exhibit their bills for the non-payment of tithes, but the Court of Chancery has of late years obtained a large share in this business.

An appeal from the equity side of this court lies immediately to the House of Peers; but from the common law side, in pursuance of the statute 31st Edward III. cap. 12. a writ of error must be first brought into the Court of Exchequer Chamber, and from their determination there lies, in the *dernier ressort*, a writ of error to the House of Lords.

COVENT GARDEN MARKET

WESTMINSTER ELECTION

COVENT-GARDEN MARKET

THE plate represents Covent-Garden Market during the bustle of an election for Westminster; the hustings are erected in the front of the church of St. Paul, which was built about the year 1650, as a chapel of ease to St. Martin's in the Fields. In 1645 the precinct of Covent-Garden was separated from St. Martin's, and constituted an independent parish; which was confirmed after the restoration in 1660, by the appellation of *St. Paul's, Covent-Garden*, when the patronage was vested in the Earl of Bedford: and as it escaped the fire in 1666, which did not reach so far, it continued as it came from the hands of its great architect, Inigo Jones, till the year 1795–6, when it was considerably injured by fire, but was immediately repaired. It is in the form of a market-house, with a portico at both ends. The portico has no ornaments but the extremities of the joists, supporting the roof, which jut out in the manner of a pediment. The beams under this pediment form a horizontal roof, supported by columns of the Doric order.* This

* In Italiâ Palladio, e Jones in Inghilterra, furono i piu severi imitatori degli antichi architetti come nella maestà e nella solidità della fabriche, cosi ancora nella simplicità e nella sobrietà degli ornamenti.—P. FRISI, *Essay on Architecture.*

In Italy Palladio, and Jones in England, were the most exact imitators of the ancient architects, as well in the majesty and solidity of the buildings, as in the simplicity, sobriety, and frugality of the ornaments.

construction, as simple as it is certainly well imagined, by reducing the art to its original, unites all the elements of it.

The English do not seem to have discovered any impatience to avail themselves of those noble models by which a taste for the Grecian and Roman architecture was revived upon the continent during the sixteenth century; on the contrary, they seem to have persevered in an attachment to the Gothic manner, and the first essays of our architects were little more than a whimsical mixture of the ancient and modern taste. We seem to be returning with more alacrity to the irregularities of the most vitiated Gothic taste, or the progress of the new front to the House of Lords would never have been tolerated under the daily immediate observation of the individuals composing the two first assemblies in Europe, who voted the funds that have been expended upon this incongruous piece of architecture.

Covent-Garden received its name from having formerly been a garden belonging to the abbot and monks of the Convent of Westminster, whence it was called Convent-Garden, of which its present name is a corruption. The fruit and vegetable market certainly diminishes the beauty and effect of this place as a square, but perhaps the world does not furnish an instance of another metropolis supplied with these articles in equal goodness and profusion. It has been calculated that there are ten thousand acres of ground in the neighbourhood of London cultivated for vegetables, and about four thousand acres for fruit. The sum paid at market for vegetables is stated at about 645,000*l.* and for fruit about 400,000*l.* which is retailed at an average profit of about 200 per cent. making the amount paid

for the supply of the metropolis in vegetables and fruit, more than three millions sterling.

The view of the election is a very fair representation of the septennial return of the majesty of the people. One of the popular candidates appears to have already taken possession of the hustings, and to be in the act of addressing the populace: the pair of empty breeches held up just before him, may lead us to suppose it has some allusion to a popular character now no more:

A man, when once he's safely chose,
May laugh at all his furious foes,
Nor think of former evil:
Yet good has its attendant ill;
A seat is no bad thing——but still
A *contest* is the *devil.*

It has been customary at many late elections for Westminster, to nominate some naval officer in the court interest; and therefore the appearance of another candidate in a boat supported by sailors, is appropriate, and the allusion pointed. The orator of this party seems to have engaged arms and legs, body and soul, in the service.

The limits of our miscellany will not admit of doing adequate justice to the different groups in this picture. We shall only observe, that Mr. Rowlandson appears to have been quite at home. The architectural dignity of the church is well preserved by Mr. Pugin; who to be sure cannot help the appearance of the steeple, which seems to rise upon the sharp ridge of the roof: it is so in the original, and could not therefore be otherwise in the copy.

COVENT-GARDEN THEATRE

IT was our intention to have preceded this article with an account of the stage, from its early introduction to the present period; but the first accounts we have, are involved in so much obscurity, that it would be rather a matter of curiosity than information, to pursue the enquiry: we have, therefore, merely contented ourselves with giving an account of the structure of this theatre, from the most authentic source we are able, and for which we are indebted to the *Dramatic Mirror*, by Gilliland.

In the year 1799, Mr. Harris expended 25,000*l.* in the entire alteration of the interior and exterior parts of Covent-Garden House, which rendered it a new theatre; a title which it also assumed when Mr. King was first deputy-manager of Drury-Lane. The amphitheatre is entirely new, and contains three circles of boxes and a spacious gallery: the form is that of a truncated ellipse, or an egg flattened at one end; the effect of which upon the stage, and upon the sound (not always to be determined by rules), is certainly good. The front of the stage advances something more than the old one into the pit, and is in a straight line. The pit is 40 feet wide and 38 in depth, contains twenty seats, which are parallel to the orchestra, and holds six

hundred and thirty-two persons. The first circle of boxes is continued round the house.

The boxes are separated from each other by partitions, which are low in front, rise behind, and are placed in a new and commodious direction. They are lined and ceiled with wainscot, but are not papered, for the advantage of sound: their fronts project in a manner very accommodating to those who sit in the first rows.

The second and third circles of boxes are continued round the theatre, and differ from those below only in respect of their height. They hold twelve hundred persons.

The interior of each circle is painted green, relieved with fanciful borders. The fronts of the boxes are coloured in white and gold, forming compartments, which have a delicate and pleasing effect.

There are no columns or visible supporters to the boxes, it being justly imagined that they intercepted the sight; yet to the people in the pit, those rows of boxes full of company, having no apparent support, are apt to give an unpleasant sensation.

The first, or two-shilling gallery, is 55 feet wide and 40 in depth, contains twelve seats, which are so elevated as to give a complete, uninterrupted view of the stage, and hold eight hundred and twenty spectators.

The upper gallery is 55 feet wide and 25 feet in depth, contains seven seats, and holds three hundred and sixty-one persons.

The proscenium is composed of pilasters and columns of the Corinthian order, fully enriched, having between them the stage-

doors, over which are the balcony boxes. In the entablature to the order is introduced the old motto, *Veluti in speculum.*

In Hart-street a very large building has been erected for the scene-painters, scene-rooms, green-room, dressing-room, &c. Through this building is a private entrance for the royal family to the stage-box. The stage-door and box-office are also in an additional building in Hart-street.

The whole of the avenues to the theatre have been much altered and improved. The principal entrance is in Bow-street, under an antique Doric portico, through a large and spacious saloon, handsomely fitted up and warmed by stoves, leading to the lower circle of boxes, and to a double staircase that leads to the upper circles.

In consequence of the great expence attending the improvements of this house, Mr. Harris was obliged to raise the prices to a level with those taken by the Drury-Lane company. This circumstance, added to the want of a shilling gallery, had so prejudicial an effect in the first instance, that the performance on the night of opening, September 17, 1792, was rendered one scene of discontent and confusion, neither play nor farce being properly finished.

Mr. Lewis assured the audience on this, that a one-shilling gallery should as soon as possible be erected; but that, without the total ruin of the managers, it was utterly impossible to open the theatre for less than the advanced prices. The opposition in the course of two or three evenings entirely died away, and a gallery, as promised, was shortly after erected.

The regulation and management of the boxes has for some years devolved on Mr. James Brandon, and his brother John,

two gentlemen who are remarkable for their attention to the public, and ever ready to render each applicant for a box as comfortable as the arrangement of their box-book will allow. They particularly distinguished themselves by their impartiality and justice to the public, when the boxes of Covent-Garden were in great request during the zenith of Master Betty's theatrical glory.

The principal performers of our English theatres are engaged under an article for three or five years, but receive their salary weekly. The minor performers are only engaged from season to season, but receive their salary as above.

The theatres have the following code of laws and regulations, by which the performers are governed:

1st. Every performer engaged or employed in the theatre at the salary of thirty shillings per week and under, who shall not duly attend the rehearsal of any theatrical performance, when summoned thereto (except prevented by real indisposition), shall forfeit sixpence for every scene in such performance wherein such performer shall be concerned, and from which he or she shall be absent; and if absent during the whole rehearsal of his or her part or character, shall forfeit two shillings and sixpence.

2d. Every performer engaged or employed at a salary of more than thirty shillings, and not exceeding three pounds per week, who shall not duly attend at rehearsals as above-mentioned, shall forfeit one shilling for each scene wherein such performer is concerned; and if absent during the whole rehearsal as aforesaid, shall forfeit five shillings.

3d. Every performer engaged or employed at a salary of more than three pounds, and not exceeding six pounds per week, who

shall not duly attend at rehearsals as above-mentioned, shall forfeit one shilling and sixpence for each scene wherein he or she is concerned; and if absent during the whole rehearsal, seven shillings.

4th. Every performer engaged or employed at a salary not exceeding nine pounds per week, not attending rehearsals as above-mentioned, shall forfeit two shillings for each scene wherein such performer is concerned; and if absent during the whole rehearsal, nine shillings.

5th. Every performer engaged at a salary of more than nine pounds per week, not attending at rehearsal, shall forfeit two shillings for each scene; and if absent during the whole rehearsal, ten shillings and sixpence.

6th. Every performer who shall refuse to study, rehearse, or perform any part or character in any theatrical performance, when requested by the managers, or either of them, or by the prompter of the theatre, by their or either of their order or direction, shall forfeit five pounds; at Covent-Garden thirty pounds.

7th. Every performer who shall wilfully absent himself or herself from the theatre at the time he or she should publicly perform any part or character in any theatrical performance, shall forfeit ten pounds for the first offence, and double that sum for the second.

8th. Every performer who shall, by pretending sickness, or any other untrue allegation, get excused from paying his or her fines for not attending rehearsals, shall forfeit double the sum he or she would be liable to pay without such pretence or allegation, in manner above-mentioned.

9th. If the prompter of the theatre, through neglect or

CUSTOM HOUSE
FROM THE RIVER THAMES

partiality, shall not, in every week during the acting season, return to the managers, or one of them, the names of every performer who has incurred any forfeit as above-mentioned, he shall forfeit a week's salary for every such omission.

N. B. All performers whose salaries are above six pounds per week, are entitled to four ivory tickets for the free admission of their friends to the theatre, viz. a double and single order for the boxes, and two double orders for the first gallery. All performers whose salaries do not amount to six pounds per week, are totally excluded from any similar privilege.

The nightly charge for a benefit at Covent-Garden, is upwards of a hundred and sixty pounds.

The print represents this theatre during the performance of an oratorio.

THE CUSTOMHOUSE, FROM THE THAMES

IS a commodious building, erected for the receipt of his majesty's customs on goods imported and exported. It is situated near the east end of Thames-street, and its front opens to the wharfs and river. This edifice is built with brick and stone, and is calculated to stand for ages. It has underneath and on each side, large warehouses for the reception of goods on

the public account; and that side of the Thames for a great extent is filled with wharfs, quays, and cranes for the landing them. The Customhouse is 189 feet in length, the center is 27 feet in depth, and the wings considerably more. The center stands back from the river, the wings approach much nearer to it; and the building is judiciously and handsomely decorated with the orders of architecture: under the wings is a colonnade of the Tuscan order, and the upper story is ornamented with Ionic columns and pediments.

Although we cannot call this a very beautiful building, yet, from its utility, and the picturesque appearance which it exhibits from the water, we thought ourselves so far entitled to deviate from the avowed plan of the work, as to give a representation of its exterior, taken from the middle of the Thames, nearly opposite to the building.

LONG ROOM, CUSTOMHOUSE.

The Customhouse, of which we have here given an account, consists of two floors, in the uppermost of which is a magnificent room, 27 feet high, that runs almost the whole length of the building: this is called the *Long Room*, and here sit the officers of the customs and their numerous clerks; the commissioners, or some of them, usually attend in a room adjoining. The interior of this room is well disposed and sufficiently light; the entrances are also well contrived, so as to answer all the purposes of convenience.

On this spot is the busy concourse of nations, who pay their tribute towards the support of Great Britain. In front of this

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building, ships of three hundred and fifty tons burthen can lie and discharge their cargoes. There was a Customhouse here built as early as the year 1383, by John Churchman, one of the sheriffs of London; but at that period, and long after, the customs were collected in different parts of the city, and in a very irregular manner. About the year 1559, the loss to the revenue was first discovered, and an act passed to compel persons to land their goods in such places as were appointed by the commissioners of the revenue; and this was the spot fixed on: a Customhouse was erected, which being destroyed by the great fire, was rebuilt by Charles II. In 1718, it underwent the same fate, and was restored in its present form. Before the Customhouse was established here, the principal place for receiving the duties was at Billingsgate. "As early as 979, in the reign of Etheldred, a small vessel was to pay at *Bilynggesgate* one halfpenny as a toll; a greater, bearing sails, one penny; a keel or hulk (*ceol vel hulcus*), fourpence; a ship laden with wood, one piece for toll; and a boat with fish, one halfpenny, or a larger, one penny. We had even then trade with France for its wines, for mention is made of ships from Rouen, which came here and landed them, and freed from toll, i. e. paid their duties. What they amounted to I cannot learn; but in 1268, the half-year's customs for foreign merchandise, in the city of London, came only to 75*l.* 6*s.* 10*d.* In 1331, they amounted to 8000*l.* In 1354, the duty on imports was only 580*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.*; on our imports (wool and felts), 81,624*l.* 1*s.* 1*d.* Well may Mr. Anderson observe the temperance and sobriety of the age, when we consider the small quantities of wine and other luxuries used in these kingdoms."

In 1590, the latter end of the glorious reign of Elizabeth, our

customs brought in 50,000*l.* They had at first been farmed at 14,000*l.* a year, afterwards rose to 42,000*l.* and finally to the sum mentioned, and still to the same person, Sir *Thomas Smith.*

In 1613, by the peaceful politics of James I. our imports brought in 48,250*l.* our exports 61,322*l.* 16*s.* 7*d.* the whole of the revenue from the customs amounting this year to 109,572*l.* 18*s.* 4*d.* in the port of London only. Our exports from the outports raised 25,471*l.* 9*s.* 9*d.*; the imports, 13,030*l.* 9*s.* 9*d.* The sum total was 148,074*l.* 17*s.* 10*d.*

In 1641, just before the beginning of our troubles, the customs brought in 500,000*l.* a year; the effect of a long series of peaceful days. The consequences of our civil broils reduced them, at the period of the Restoration, about 110,000*l.* yearly; from which period we are enabled to be more correct, and to state the progress of our navigation and customs with greater precision and certainty, up to the year 1784.

We shall have great satisfaction, in the appendix to this work, if we are enabled to bring these accounts correctly to a later period, and to shew from real documents, the utmost effect of the futile declaration of war against our commerce, made by the despot of the continent, in his boasted blockading system.

In these statements the old Customhouse valuations are taken, for the sake of the comparisons which have been hitherto made from them; but the operation of the convoy tax has occasioned the prices to be fixed pretty near the real value, so that the amount of the imports and exports can now be ascertained with greater accuracy than formerly.

	Years.	Ships cleared outward. Tons.	Value of Cargoes.	Nett Customs paid into the Exchequer.
The Restoration . .	1663			
	69	142,900	2,043,043	390,000
The Revolution . .	1688	285,800	4,086,087	551,141
Peace of Ryswick . .	1697	244,788	3,525,907	694,892
Last years of William III.	1700			
	01	317,328	6,045,432	1,474,861
	02			
Wars of Anne . .	1709	289,318	5,913,357	1,257,332
	12	355,735	6,868,840	1,315,423
First of George I. . .	1713			
	14	448,004	7,696,573	1,588,162
	15			
First of George II. . .	1726			
	27	456,483	7,891,739	1,621,731
	28			
Peaceful years . .	1736			
	37	503,568	9,993,232	1,492,009
	38			
War of . . .	1739			
	40	471,451	8,870,499	1,399,865
	41			
Peaceful years . . .	1749			
	50	661,184	12,599,112	1,565,942
	51			
War of . . .	1755			
	56	524,710	12,371,916	1,763,314
	57			
First of George III. . .	1760	573,978	15,781,175	1,969,934
	61	626,055	16,038,913	1,866,152
	62	600,570	14,543,336	1,858,417
	63	649,017	15,578,943	2,249,604
The average . . . both years inclusive	from 1764 to 1770	729,776	15,912,052	2,410,725
Ditto . . .	from 1771 to 1777	848,043	16,425,090	2,480,721
Ditto . . .	from 1778 to 1784	803,592	13,219,070	2,745,260
Ditto . . .	from 1785 to 1791	—	18,194,000	—
Ditto . . .	from 1792 to 1798	—	25,559,000	—
Ditto . . .	from 1799 to 1805	—	35,991,000	—

To this table we can therefore add, upon the authority of Mr. Rose's brief examination, that the *real* annual average

value of imports in four years, 1802 to 1805, both inclusive, was 53,240,000*l.*

That the *real* annual average value of foreign goods and British manufacture exported in four years, 1802 to 1805, both years inclusive, was 56,611,000*l.*

The inspector-general, in his evidence before the committee of secrecy of the two Houses of Parliament, observed, that many articles of import, which, in this way of viewing the subject, would appear as unfavourable to the country, are in fact accessions of wealth; such as the produce of our various fisheries, and a considerable part of the imports from our possessions in the East and West Indies: the accuracy of which observation he ascertained to conviction. We venture, therefore, making due allowance for these considerations, to state the probable balance of trade to be in our favour, on the average of the four years ending with 1805, to the extent of about 14,800,000*l.* per annum.

We are likewise enabled, upon the same authority, to state, that in the year 1784, the shipping in the merchant's service, belonging to Great Britain and her colonies, not including Ireland, was 1,301,000 tons, navigated by 101,870 seamen.

In 1805, it had increased to 2,226,000 tons, navigated by 152,642 seamen.

That the *real* value of the exports of British manufactures, which were in 1784, 18,603,000*l.* had in 1805 increased to 41,068,000*l.*

That the produce of our fisheries, which in 1784 was of the value of 129,000*l.* had in 1805 increased to 484,000*l.*

Rowlandson & Pugin del. et sculpt.

DEBATING SOCIETY.

PICCADILLY.

DEBATING SOCIETY

THE plate represents the meeting of a society which has been usually held in a large room at No. 22, Piccadilly, under the appellation of *The Athenian Lyceum.*

In a country like England, where eloquence has so frequently enabled its possessors to arrive at the highest offices and dignities in the state, one should have been led to expect some institutions in which this talent was cultivated, similar to those of the Grecian republics, when they yielded to no power but that of eloquence: nothing of the kind, however, presents itself, if we except the small portion of encouragement which is given to its rising efforts at our great schools and universities, and by societies of the nature here represented, to which the English are said to be partial.

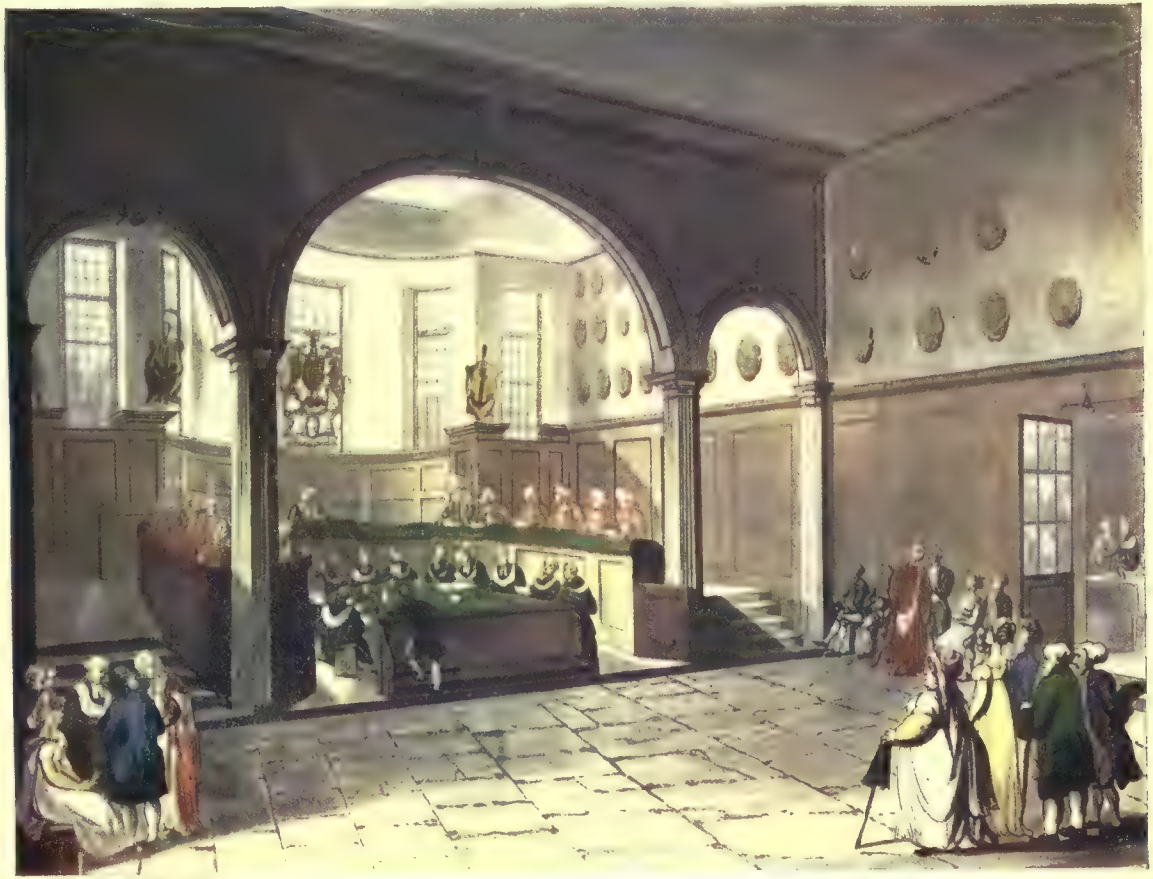
The variety of subjects which press upon our attention, and require to be completed in this number (as it concludes the first volume), lays us under the necessity of postponing till our next, a review of the state of eloquence in this country, which we had originally proposed to give under this head; and likewise the information we have been able to collect respecting these places of popular amusement. We shall only add for the present, that it was with extreme regret we have observed in some of these societies, a disposition to convert that spirit of freedom so interest-

ing to the feelings of an Englishman, and that liberty of canvassing political subjects which the laws allow to be done with decency, into a theatre of licentious discussion, and a means of disseminating principles injurious, not only to the true interests of society, but to the safety of the individuals who venture to utter them, and which must ultimately lead to the introduction of restraints upon an amusement, that, with a little more prudence, may be highly beneficial, as it certainly is congenial to the English character.

DOCTORS' COMMONS

IS situate in Great-Knight-Rider-street, to the south of St. Paul's Cathedral. It is the college of civilians, where the civil law is studied and practised, and derives its name from the civilians commoning together as in other colleges. Here are kept the courts which have cognizance of injuries of an *ecclesiastical*, *military*, and *maritime* nature.

During the period of the Saxon government, ecclesiastical and civil power went hand in hand; the bishop of the diocese, with the alderman or sheriff, sat together, and the dignity of the one was supported by the power of the other. The ecclesiastical policy of the continent introduced with William the Conqueror, soon occasioned the separation of the ecclesiastical from the civil power, and the Saxon laws, which abounded with the spirit of



DOCTORS COMMONS

freedom and liberty, were soon overpowered by the Norman justiciaries. At the accession of Henry I. this union of the courts was re-established; but the power of Archbishop Anselm obtained from the famous Synod of Westminster (3d Henry I.) a decree, which soon effected its dissolution. This separation was more fully confirmed in the oath imposed by the clergy, who brought in the usurper Stephen, in pursuance of which, ecclesiastical persons and causes were subject only to the bishops' jurisdiction. The contest respecting the civil law, which was espoused by the clergy in opposition to the common law, rendered their re-union impracticable, so that even at the general reformation of the church, matters were suffered to remain very much in the same state.

The ecclesiastical courts are, 1. *The Archdeacons;* 2. *The Consistory Court;* 3. *The Court of Arches*, whereof the judge is called *the dean of the Arches*, because he formerly held his court in the church of St. Mary le Bow (*Sancta Maria de Arcubus*), though now all the principal spiritual courts are holden at Doctors' Commons; 4. *The Court of Peculiars;* 5. *The Prerogative Court*; 6. *The Court of Delegates*, or great court of appeal in all ecclesiastical causes: but in case the king be a party, the appeal from the decisions of this court are not to him in Chancery, as from the other spiritual courts, but (by the statute 24th Henry VIII. c. 12.) to all the bishops of the realm assembled in the Upper House of Convocation. 7. *A Court, or Commission of Review*, sometimes granted in extraordinary cases, to revise the sentence of the Court of Delegates: but this not being a matter of right which the subject may demand *ex debito justitiæ*, is frequently denied.

The causes which are cognizable in these courts are either *pecuniary*, *matrimonial*, or *testamentary*.

Of the first class the principal are, substracting or withholding tithes, the non-payment of ecclesiastical dues or fees. Under this head may also be reduced the several matters of spoliation, dilapidations, and neglect of repairing the church, and things thereunto belonging. It is also said, that if a curate be licensed, and his salary appointed by the bishop, and he be not paid, the curate hath a remedy in the ecclesiastical court.

Matrimonial causes are chiefly, 1. *Causa jactitationis matrimonii*, where one of the parties boasts that he or she is married to another. 2. *Restoration of conjugal rights*, which is where either of the parties lives separate from the other without sufficient cause. 4. *Divorces:* if it becomes improper that the parties, through some supervenient cause arising *ex post facto*, should live any longer together, the ecclesiastical law decrees a divorce *a mensâ et thoro;* but if the marriage was bad *ab initio*, and was contracted *in fraudem legis*, they decree a separation *a vinculo matrimonii* itself. 5. *The suit for alimony*, a term which signifies maintenance.

Testamentary cases are divisible into three branches: 1. *The probate of wills;* 2. *The granting administrations;* 3. *The suing for legacies.* But in this last case the courts of equity exercise a concurrent jurisdiction with the ecclesiastical courts, as incident to some other species of relief prayed by the complainant.

With respect to the method of proceeding in these courts, they are regulated according to the practice of the civil and canon laws, or rather according to a mixture of both, corrected and new-modelled by their own particular usages, and the interposition

of the courts of common law. Subject therefore to some particular restrictions, their ordinary course of proceeding is, first by *citation*, then by *libel*, or *allegation of complaint;* to this succeeds the *defendant's answer;* then they proceed to *proofs* by depositions taken down in writing by an officer of the court. The defendant may then go on to what is called *defensive allegation*, to which he is entitled to the plaintiff's answer upon oath, and may in his turn proceed to *proofs*. When all the pleadings and proofs are concluded, they are referred to the consideration, not of a jury, but a judge, who *takes informations* by hearing advocates on both sides, and thereupon forms his *interlocutory decree*, or *definitive sentence*, at his own discretion; from which there lies generally an appeal, which, if not presented in fifteen days, becomes final, by 25th Hen. VIII. c. 19.

But the point on which these jurisdictions are the most defective, is, that of enforcing their sentences when pronounced, for which they have no other process but that of excommunication; which is described to be twofold, *the less and the greater excommunication.* At the same time we may add, that however lightly this penalty may be held by some persons and in some cases, yet, by the common law, an excommunicated person is disabled to do any act that is required to be done by one that is *probus et legalis homo.* He cannot serve upon juries, cannot be a witness in any court, and, which is the worst of all, cannot bring an action, either real or personal, to recover lands or money due to him. Nor is this the whole, he shortly becomes liable to imprisonment, from which he can only be released by a certificate from the bishop, that he is reconciled to the church.

DRURY-LANE.

THIS magnificent structure unites a splendid combination of taste, grandeur, and elegance, which renders it a monument of fame to Mr. Holland, the architect; and when its exterior is completely finished, will be a national ornament.

It was raised on the site of the old house; and opened for the first time March 13, 1793, with a selection of sacred music.

The buildings which surround the theatre are faced with Portland stone, but will be finished with balustrade. The theatre, which rises above them, is cased with plaister in imitation of stone, and finished with a balustrade. Through the roof rises a turret, making a large ventilator. On the summit is placed a figure of Apollo, more than ten feet high; but this is to be removed to the west front when finished, and replaced by one of Shakspeare.

The accommodations for the stage are upon a much larger scale than those of any other theatre in Europe. The stage is 105 feet in length, 75 wide, and 45 feet between the stage-doors.

In the roof of the theatre is contained, besides the barrel-loft, ample room for scene-painters, and four very large reservoirs, from which water is distributed over every part of the house,

DRURY LANE THEATRE

for the purpose of instantly extinguishing fire in any part where such accident is possible.

Over the stage is a double range of galleries, called flies, containing machinery, and where the greatest part of the scenery is worked; but which, from the number of blocks, wheels, and ropes crossing each other in every direction, give it very much the appearance of a ship's deck.

There are two green-rooms, one for the use of chorus-singers, supernumeraries, and figurants; the other for the principal performers: the latter of which is fitted up in the first style of elegance, and occasionally visited by persons of the highest distinction.

The audience part of the theatre is formed nearly on a semi-circular plan. It contains a pit, four tiers of boxes on each side of the house, and two galleries, which command a full view of every part of the stage.

The pit is 54 feet in length, 46 in breadth, has twenty-five rows of benches, and contains eight hundred persons. The benches are so well constructed, that those next the orchestra command an uninterrupted view of the whole stage, and the avenues to it are very commodious and safe.

The prevailing colours of the boxes are blue and white, relieved with richly fancied embellishments of decorative ornament. The compartments into which the front of each tier is divided, have centrally a highly finished cameo, the ground of cornelian-stone colour, with exquisitely drawn figures, raised in white; the subjects are chiefly from Ovid, and painted by Rebecca. The stage-boxes project about two feet, and have a rich silver lattice-work, of excellent taste and workmanship.

The boxes are supported by cast-iron candalabras, fluted and silver-lackered, resting on elegantly executed feet; from the top of each pillar a branch projects three feet, from which is suspended a brilliant cut-glass chandelier. A circular mirror, about five feet diameter, is placed at each end of the dress-boxes, next the stage, that produces a pleasing reflected view of the audience. On nights when this theatre is honoured with their Majesties' presence, the partitions of the stage-box are taken down, and it is brought forward near two feet; a canopy is erected, superbly decorated with crimson velvet, richly embroidered with gold: and adjoining them sit the princesses; their box is usually lined with light blue satin, fancifully festooned, and elegantly decorated with silver fringe and rich tassels.

Two stage-doors have been added since the building of this theatre, over which are two boxes on each side, in a semicircular inverted form. The dome is admirably constructed to preserve the sound, and is painted in a most bold and impressive style of truth and grandeur.

There are twenty-nine boxes all round the first tier, and eleven back front boxes; twenty-nine all round the second tier, of which eleven are six seats deep; and ten boxes on each side the gallery, in the upper tiers. There are also eight private boxes on each side of the pit.

The two-shilling gallery will contain six hundred and seventy-five persons, and the one-shilling gallery three hundred and eight. The boxes, pit, and galleries hold three thousand six hundred and eleven spectators, amounting in cash to 826*l.* 6*s.*

The corridors which surround the boxes are spacious, and communicate with each other by means of staircases in the angles of the theatre.

At the west end of the theatre there is a semicircular saloon, 41 feet long, and containing a handsome statue of Garrick between the comic and tragic muses, opening by an arch to the corridors, and having bar-rooms, from which the company may be supplied with refreshments. There are also large saloons on the north and south sides of the theatre, and handsome square rooms, one of which is intended for the use of his Majesty, and the other for the Prince of Wales.

The theatre has three entrances to the boxes, two to the pit, and the like number to the galleries. The one in Brydge's-street leads to a saloon 75 feet by 21, called the Egyptian Hall.

Sixteen pillars of the Doric order, beautifully painted in imitation of porphyry, are at once a splendid ornament and support of the back boxes, to which a flight of stairs at each end leads.

The band of the theatre consists of some of the best musicians in London; the leader, Mr. Shaw, is greatly admired for his professional excellence.

The sum of 200,000*l.* has been expended on this theatre, in order to render the house and its performances as perfect as possible for public gratification.

END OF VOLUME THE FIRST.

ERRATA

Page 6, line 10, for *ospandrells* read *spandrels.*
Page 13, line 18, for *ilua intergram* read *illam integram.*
Page 14, line 18, for *clargis* read *classis.*
Page 136, line 15, for *officiis* read *officii.*

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